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ABSTRACT

This book examines President Clinton's America Reads Challenge, a proposed solution to the political, social, and economic inequality in the United States and explains how the goals of America Reads and the program's implementation were not as straightforward as President Clinton imagined. By looking at the origins of the America Reads policy and analyzing a case study of the program at one university, the book provides a glimpse into the values that are behind literacy education policies. It demonstrates how values have clashed concerning the policy's goals, organization, and implementation, resulting in a literacy initiative that has served some, but not all, U.S. children. Through political knowledge and participation, it seems educators can do much to effect change in schools. The book is a call for readers to consider the political aspects of policy, rather than buying into policy because of a belief of an individual or group far removed from the classroom. Appendixes contain an explanation of data collection and analysis, the time line of America Reads, English language arts standards, and DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile. (Contains approximately 175 references.) (NKA)

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America Reads

A Critical Policy Analysis

Jacqueline Edmondson

ED 438 504

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A Critical Policy Analysis

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Jacqueline Edmondson
University of Minnesota at Morris
Morris, Minnesota, USA

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Reading
Association

800 Barksdale Road,
PO Box 8139
Newark, Delaware 19714-8139, USA
www.reading.org

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Dedicated to the memory of my mother,
Betty J. Zehring,
and to her parents,
my grandparents,
Clarence and Alberta Reed

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Note From the Series Editors

Artists manage to turn our world on end so we can see what we sometimes take for granted from new angles. For example, Wyland's paintings, by offering dual images of surface and underwater worlds, expose hidden dimensions of the sea that we would otherwise miss. Jacqueline Edmondson's study of America Reads offers a similar exploration by contrasting federal policy visions with local university and school translations of policy. In her words, "In order to critically read policies it is necessary to consider what is said and what is unsaid" (p. 33). By applying critical theory to a detailed analysis of federal policy underpinning the America Reads initiative, and further tracing its implementation in various classrooms, this work offers readers a powerful understanding of how to read between the lines of lofty policies and their consequences for literacy development in classrooms. If we follow the example set forth in this volume, we may be able to look below the surface of any policy to examine and critically evaluate claims, attitudes, values, and beliefs of policy authors who aim to alter the status quo in classrooms.

This book is the first publication under our editorship and the seventh in the Literacy Studies Series. The broad purpose of the Series is to advance our understanding of literacy, literacy practices, and policy issues, specifically moving from theory and research to practical applications. We believe that this superb policy study will offer educators in literacy and educational leadership fields both a close look at America Reads from a policy perspective and a method with implications for other policy analyses. This book and others in the Litera-

cy Studies Series are designed to advance our understanding of literacy, literacy practices, and policy issues. This book is a powerful addition to the Series.

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Foreword

At 1:30 p.m. on August 27, 1996, U.S. President Bill Clinton stepped from his campaign train in Wyandotte, Michigan, to listen to Justin and Elizabeth, two third graders from a local elementary school, read *The Little Engine That Could* on the steps of the Bacon Memorial Public Library. With his stage set, President Clinton offered his solution to the political, social, and economic inequalities in the United States. He began,

> I sought the presidency because I wanted to make sure we were prepared for the twenty-first century, because I wanted us to go roaring and united into the next century with the American Dream alive for everyone, with every person in this country who's willing to work hard having the chance to live out their dreams and live up to their God-given potential. And we are moving in the right direction to meet that goal.... That's why Justin and Elizabeth were up here with *The Little Engine That Could*, pointing us the way to the future. That is what we have to have—a Justin and an Elizabeth in every single home in the United States. I have come here to this wonderful community to ask all of you to join me, without regard for your political party or your views on other issues, in a simple, straightforward, critical national goal: All America's children should be able to read on their own by the third grade, every single one of them.... To meet this challenge, we need one million tutors ready and able to give children the personal attention they need to catch up and get ahead. Today I propose a national literacy campaign to help our children learn to read by the third grade—a plan that offers thirty thousand reading specialists and volunteer coordinators to communities that are willing to do their part, people who will mobilize a citizen army of volunteer tutors we need, America's reading corps. (Clinton, 1996, August 29)

In *America Reads*, Jacqueline Edmondson describes how this goal and plan were and are not as simple and straightforward as President Clinton imagined. By telling the story of the America Reads Initiative's inception, marketing, struggle for life within Congress, and eventual implementation in the communities surrounding Penn State University, Edmondson provides a glimpse of the social life of policy. Despite President Clinton's disclaimer, the America Reads Initiative is partisan. Edmondson explains the complexities of that partisanship with remarkable clarity. Rather than dismissing it as politics as usual, she demonstrates how competing values clashed concerning the definition of the policy's goals, the organization of operations, and the implementation at particular sites. In this way, the book confronts us with our participation in that partisanship—how our values are implicated at one or more levels of the social life of the policy. In short, Edmondson shows us that our work in and around schools is unavoidably political.

And the author does much more than that. By seeing policy as the authorization of values, she reveals how power circulated throughout the America Reads Initiative. From President Clinton who announced the policy down to the Penn State tutors who worked with children very much like Justin and Elizabeth, each link in the chain of the organization interpreted the policy according to his or her understandings of reading, beliefs about children, attitudes toward poverty, and knowledge of teaching. Of course, each participant was not able to act arbitrarily (even Clinton could not make what he wanted out of the policy), but each exerted some control over his or her actions. In these times of increasing federal and state policy intervention into the daily work of literacy educators, Edmondson offers us hope that we can understand and influence those policies from start to finish. Regardless of how tightly coupled those policies may become, we have power. She asks us to realize the democratic possibilities of that power by aligning our individual efforts into some collective actions in order to reconsider how reading and education might help all Americans live out their dreams.

Patrick Shannon
Penn State University
University Park, Pennsylvania, USA

Preface

> The next child was Paul. Julie asked him what they read the last time, and Paul said they read the book about three blind mice and the chapter called "The Dream" from *Frog and Toad*. He picked up a *Frog and Toad* book…picked a chapter, and began reading. Paul went on to read the next chapter. He had no oral reading miscues, and [Paul and the tutor] often talked about the pictures. I noticed that Paul kept pulling at the left shoulder of his shirt where there was a big hole—it was as if he was trying to cover it up. His socks didn't match and he was wearing them inside out. It made me remember all the children who were having a free breakfast in the cafeteria when I came in. There were five children in Ms. Shauver's class of 20 or 22 who raised their hands for breakfast. The next chapter they read was called "Shivers." Julie (the tutor) began by commenting "I hope it's not too scary." Paul said, "Nothing will scare me." (field notes, March 19, 1998)

This scene is one of many that represent the America Reads initiative throughout its first year of implementation across the United States. America Reads, a proposed policy that all children (with the support of volunteer tutors) should read well and independently by the end of the third grade, was first introduced by U.S. President Bill Clinton during his second campaign for presidency, and later rearticulated in his Call to Action for American Education during the 1997 State of the Union Address. The Call included the following key points: (1) rigorous national standards in math and reading, (2) quality teaching, (3) teaching every student to read independently by the end of third grade, (4) expanding Head Start to 80% of its original capacity, (5) school choice, (6) school safety, (7) modernized school buildings, and (8) connecting classrooms to the Internet. It was the third point,

teaching every student to read independently, which made specific reference to the America Reads Challenge. This endeavor would rely primarily on the efforts and abilities of volunteer tutors who, as in the case of Julie and numerous others discussed in this book, would often be university students working to earn U.S. federal work-study funds to support their college education.

Several months after the State of the Union Address, the America Reads Challenge was underway at Pennsylvania State University (Penn State). Penn State was one of 20 universities that made an early commitment of federal work-study funds to the America Reads Challenge. Under the guidance of program coordinator Priscilla Carman and the Center for the Study of Adult Literacy at Penn State, the program quickly enlisted more than 400 tutors, the largest number of tutors of any university in the United States, as it claimed to serve over 5,490 children throughout the state of Pennsylvania (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997). The breadth of the program and the interest in America Reads made Penn State a particularly interesting site for such a study.

My personal interest in educational policy in general, and America Reads in particular, began when I first heard of the America Reads Challenge on February 28, 1997, as I listened to President Clinton's State of the Union Address. At the time I was completing the first year of my doctoral studies at Penn State, physically removed from the schools Clinton proposed to reform with his "Call to Action." As I listened to the speech, I remember thinking that the president's goal of an "army of a million" reading tutors would anger many teachers throughout the country. I thought teachers would resent the implication that they were not doing their jobs well enough, and that volunteers could do it for them. I even watched newspapers, magazines, and journals over the next several weeks, expecting statements from the teacher's unions or professional groups who I thought would denounce Clinton for discrediting the work of teachers and schools. No such response appeared.

At the same time, my coursework at Penn State, particularly my study with Pat Shannon, introduced me to the possibilities of applying critical theory to policy analysis. I had just completed a master's program in educational psychology, and I was looking for alternate ways to understand and explain what I had experienced as a classroom

teacher. During this time, Shannon was working on his book *Reading Poverty* (1998), and he graciously shared with me some of the chapters of his manuscript that applied a critical analysis to reading poverty. As I became more interested in critical policy analysis, he introduced me to the work of the Australian educator John Prunty, who was one of the first to call attention to the application of critical theory to educational policy. I also was introduced to the research of Catherine Marshall, Stephen Ball, Francis Fowler, C. Wright Mills, and David Sehr. Their work began to shape my early questions about this project, particularly Sehr's book *Education for Public Democracy* (1997) which made me consider the broader purposes of education within a democratic society.

Shannon also suggested that I sit in on a class with Henry Giroux at Penn State, where I learned much about the early foundations and assumptions of critical theory. His course introduced me the ideas of Karl Marx, Michael Apple, Roger Simon, and Stanley Aronowitz, not to mention Giroux's own work. As a result, my intention for this project was to apply critical theory to the America Reads policy to see what could be learned from it. In particular, I sought to understand the underlying values and assumptions that were applied to the policy, not only as it was conceived by politicians, but also as it was implemented by the university, teachers, and tutors.

This book tells the story of the tutors, tutees, teachers, a program coordinator, and administrators at the Penn State University who were involved with the program during the first year of its implementation. It should be clear from the onset that this story of America Reads makes no claims or generalizations about the program as it played out at any of the other university or community sites, which came to number more than 1,000 during the first year of operation.

The fact that this data was collected during the first year of the America Reads program offers a unique insight into neoliberal policies in education. Neoliberalism is a political ideology that emphasizes "free-market economics as the necessary means for achieving progressive social aims and protecting individual freedom" (Schusterman, 1999, p. 26). In other words, the success of the economy is paramount to neoliberals. The writings and speeches of neoliberals typically espouse four core values: economy, community, efficiency (sometimes described as standards and accountability), and equity.

During the first year, the program was implemented largely as it was conceived by the Clinton administration's domestic and economic policy advisors. By the second year, America Reads had been through the legislative process, which introduced changes to the program as it was compromised in light of the Reading Excellence Act (see Goodman, 1999).

Reading This Book

This book has two overarching goals: (1) to apply critical theory to a policy in order to demonstrate the possibilities for alternative analyses within the educational community, and (2) to offer a case study of the America Reads policy, analyzed through critical theory, that should raise important questions about the program for the reader. The first part of this book offers a social, political, and historical contextualization of the America Reads initiative, while the second part offers the case study of the America Reads Challenge as it was implemented at one university with federal work-study tutors. Readers hoping to learn more about critical policy analysis in general, as well as the political and historical aspects of the America Reads program, should begin with Part One. Here readers will find explanations of critical policy analysis, definitions of neoliberalism, and discussions of the values, both official and hidden, of the neoliberal ideology. The explanations in Part One of the book treat America Reads in general terms considering all five components of the policy. It is not until the discussion of America Reads at Penn State that the discussion focuses more specifically on the university federal work-study component of the policy.

For those readers who are eager to get to the specific case of America Reads at Penn State and five schools in the community surrounding the university, beginning with Part Two is possible. However, it will be necessary for the reader to page through Part One for necessary explanations of critical policy analysis. The data collection and analysis procedures are detailed in Appendix A for readers who are interested in the specifics of the methodology employed for this study. This information appears separately so the chapters can focus on the policy at its various sites. Appendix B follows with a timeline of America Reads as it unfolded both nationally, and at Penn State.

Appendixes C and D include IRA/NCTE's Standards for the English Language Arts and DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading profile.

Chapter 1 is an overview of this critical study of America Reads at Penn State. The project is analyzed through the application of critical theory to policy, which means there are explicit statements about the power, politics, and values that were operating throughout the program. This chapter also provides a rationale for applying critical theory to the analysis of policy, which is contrasted with the more typical functionalist analysis. It explains the historical roots of critical theory, and traces its application to policy in contemporary educational research.

Chapter 2 also offers a detailed description of the America Reads program as it was conceived and presented by President Clinton and members of the U.S. Department of Education. I begin with this information first, rather than with that of the schools or teachers, because the policy originated at the federal level.

The purpose of the chapter is two-fold: to situate the America Reads phenomenon within a broader political context of neoliberalism, and to clearly lay out what the initial proposed legislation of America Reads entailed. An extended discussion of the official definition of the program as it was presented by President Clinton will be offered and explained within the context of a neoliberal ideology. The chapter explains why America Reads made sense, and to whom.

Chapter 3 presents the hidden values of neoliberal educational policy that are evident in the America Reads legislation. Based on interviews, documents, and speeches with key individuals who developed and implemented the America Reads program, four core hidden values are brought to the surface for analysis. The chapter considers how the sovereign power of the federal government influenced the initial implementation of the program.

In Part Two, Chapters 4 and 5 detail the America Reads policy as it played out at the university and five local school sites during the first year of the program. Chapter 4 moves into the story of America Reads at Penn State, including how Penn State was selected as one of the first universities to employ students in the program. This chapter presents interviews, observations, and other data, including e-mail and listserv notices, that were collected from the administration, the

coordinator, and a subset of the tutors during the first year of the program. This data will show how the early values of the program evolved as it got underway at Penn State. The "corporate" nature of the university is addressed as Penn State strove to create a program that valued "postwar" business models (see Reich, 1988a) that equate size with success. But, as the program was placed in the hands of the America Reads coordinator at the university and then into the hands of the tutors, it took on different values and goals. The chapter illuminates the discursive nature of power as key groups met resistance, as well as the values of others involved during the initial stages of the program.

Chapter 5 considers the events of five schools that "took on" the America Reads Challenge by welcoming tutors into their classrooms. The values that operated at the school are outlined as the program took shape over the first year of the study. The chapter shows how the policy was implemented in various classrooms as tutors worked in ways that the educators in schools needed. In practice, the program was shaped by the teachers and tutors who used it to meet the needs of their daily work.

Chapter 6 considers the implications of the America Reads Challenge at Penn State, as well as the possibilities for employing critical analysis in educational reform. This chapter considers the consensus and dissensus that was evident in this particular case, with specific suggestions for educators regarding what needs to be done in light of what we learn from the critical analysis in this study. The book concludes with a consideration of the possibilities critical policy analysis affords educators during this time when increasing federal involvement in education is imminent.

Glossary of Key Terms

Before beginning, it seems useful to present a glossary of key terms that recur throughout the text. The purpose of the glossary is not to imply that there are fixed definitions for these terms, nor is it intended to indicate a simplistic or narrow representation of the concepts that are reflected by these words. Rather, the glossary is meant to serve as an overview for the readers, to guide those less familiar with the language of critical policy analysis and neoliberal political

rhetoric. Although these definitions will certainly vary from author to author, the explanations offered here are consistent with their use in this particular context.

America Reads Challenge: America Reads is a federal initiative introduced by President Clinton. The primary goal of the program is to teach all children to read independently by the end of the third grade. The policy relies largely on volunteer tutors and its original conceptualization had five key components: America's Reading Corps, Parents as First Teachers Challenge grants, Head Start expansion, expansion of federal work study students (the primary focus of this study), and accountability of results. Readers can learn more about the program by visiting the America Reads Web site at http://www.ed.gov/inits/americareads/index.html.

centralization: Centralization refers to the movement of power from local entities to central agents of control. In this study, there is evidence of power shifting from local schools toward the federal government as the introduction of new policy imposes a particular ideological vision for schools and communities.

corporatization: This term reflects the tendency of universities or other institutions to become more like corporations in their management and structures. In other words, they adopt business principles in their operations, compete and advertise for clientele, and organize management based on big business models.

critical policy analysis: This involves the application of the central tenets of critical theory to the analysis of policy, educational policy in this case. Central to this analysis is the posing of questions that examine the social, political, historic, and economic realities that shape a given policy proposal. The work of John Prunty is particularly helpful in understanding the basic premises of critical policy analysis (see Prunty, 1984).

democracy: Generally speaking, democracy can be conceptualized by two schools of thought. *Private democracy* reflects a focus on the accumulation of capital and protection of self interest, whereas *pub-*

lic democracy has participatory citizenship as its central tenet. Each view has a different concept of what the purpose of public education is in a democratic society. David Sehr's work is excellent in helping to build background knowledge for these concepts. (see Sehr, 1997).

dominant ideology: The ideas and beliefs that are held by those in positions of power are imposed on the social and political aspects of others' lives, including language, education, values, beliefs and attitudes. Henry Giroux's work is important in helping educators to understand these influences on education and schooling (see Giroux, 1981, 1997).

false consciousness: This term, originating from the work of Karl Marx, refers to the tendency to unknowingly subscribe to programs, policies, or ideologies that further the cause of dominant ideological groups at the expense of oneself. Some educators, such as Noam Chomsky, refer to this phenomenon as "consent without consent" (Chomsky, 1999, p. 43). Clegg (1999) has referred to this as "organizational outflanking," (p. 19) which reflects the tendency to comply rather than revolt.

functionalism: This is the most prevalent type of policy analysis. Functionalism focuses on "what works" or the effects of a program or policy as it fits within an already existing system. Bennett and LeCompte (1990) provide an especially readable explanation of functionalism in relation to school systems.

goals and values: These two terms are used repeatedly throughout this study, and it needs to be clear from the onset what the terms mean in this context. Goals represent the ultimate aim of the stakeholders, and are determined by explicit statements or activities. Values are broader categorizations that represent the stakeholder's broader visions of an ideal society. For example, having all children learn to read by the end of the third grade is considered an explicit goal of the Clinton administration, while a universally literate workforce is a value that is a broader representation of this goal.

hegemony: This term refers to the ability of dominant groups to sustain power, privilege, and control over other groups. **Ideological**

hegemony refers to the various ways that knowledge is structured in different social relationships. Hegemony reflects the "successful attempt of a dominant class to utilize its control over the resources of state and civil society, particularly through the use of the mass media and the educational system, to establish its view of the world as all inclusive and universal" (Giroux, 1981, p. 23).

heteroglossia: This refers to the multiplicity of "voices" that compete in any given individual. Each person has voices that represent various discourses of their family, social class, nation, and gender, among other identities (see Gee, 1996, for a discussion of discourse as an "identity kit"). Heteroglossia refers to how these voices compete, or may even seem incompatible (see Bahktin, 1981).

historical amnesia: This refers to the tendency to compartmentalize events so there appears to be no social or political history. Historical amnesia can result from an over reliance on functionalist analyses, because these analyses fail to consider the social and historical roots of a phenomenon.

human capital: As an agenda of the Clinton administration, human capital refers to investment in the skills of U.S. citizens, enabling workers to move from one job to the next as needed in light of the global economy. Human capital is grounded in the belief that the strength of the nation (particularly the economy) relies primarily on the strength and skills of the people. As Clinton and Vice President Al Gore campaigned for their first term in office, they published a book titled *Putting People First* (1992) that outlines their human capital agenda. Another explanation can be found in Marshall Smith's work (see Smith & Scoll, 1995).

marketization: This refers to the packaging and selling of education based on market principles of supply and demand. Although some argue that subjecting schools to a market logic will improve them through competition (see Chubb & Moe, 1990), others have argued compellingly that schools will not thrive using this logic (see Chubb & Moe, 1996).

policy: Policy is the crystallized form of politics, or the values of its author. The use of the Internet makes tracking policy through state and federal legislatures much more accessible.

politics: These are the value-laden relations of power among people that are evident at the local (micro) levels or national (macro) levels. For educators hoping to understand the political implications of their daily work, see Pat Shannon's book *Becoming Political* (1992). For those hoping to better grasp the implications of political agendas of major and minor parties at the national level, see Joel Spring's work *Political Agendas in Education: From the Christian Coalition to the Green Party* (1997).

power: This construct can be conceptualized either by its *effects* or the by the *strategies* employed in the use of power. This study will focus on the latter, and will rely primarily on how power is used to facilitate the America Reads phenomenon. The explanations of power offered by Michel Foucault will be central to this analysis. In particular, Foucault delineated three specific types of power: sovereign, biopower, and disciplinary power. *Sovereign power* refers to the direct function of the state or the law. *Biopower* refers to control of the population at large through normalization. *Disciplinary power* makes use of surveillance to control particular groups or individuals. Power is also referred to as *discursive*, which means that it shifts or moves from one group or person to the next. With the America Reads phenomenon, we will see how power shifted hands from administrators to tutors and teachers at various points (see Clegg, 1989; Foucault, 1980).

neoliberalism: This is a dominant political ideology that emphasizes a focus on the growth of the economy as the primary means to address social issues. Pat Shannon's work *Reading Poverty* (1997) offers an excellent framework for educators who hope to better understand political ideologies, such as neoliberalism, and their implications for education.

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Part One
Contextualizations

CHAPTER 1

The Study

At the United Center arena in Chicago, Illinois, on August 29, 1996, U.S. President Bill Clinton accepted the Democratic Party's nomination to run for his second term as president. His rallying speech, often interjected with applause and chants of "four more years" from the enthusiastic crowd, made passing mention of "two wonderful little children reading from their favorite book, *The Little Engine That Could*" (Clinton, 1996, August 29). Just 2 days earlier, Clinton stood with these two children, Justin and Elizabeth, third graders who read to the crowd that assembled at the steps of the public library in Wyandotte, Michigan. The crowd had gathered to meet the president as he made his way by train from West Virginia to Chicago. Although the scene of these children with the president in small-town America may have been reminiscent of a Norman Rockwell print, the politics behind the event foreshadowed a new type of educational policy that would attempt to move neoliberal ideologies to the forefront of school reform efforts. This new policy, the America Reads Challenge, employs rhetoric that conjures elements of the "American dream"—patriotism, security, and citizenship—but it masks larger, more complex issues that need to be addressed. This critical policy analysis will consider these vital issues behind the policy of America Reads. This chapter will introduce the key ideas behind the study, and contextualize the study in both time and place.

Policy and the Policy Debate

Educational policy impacts schools, teachers, and children. Policy exerts an ideological influence as sovereign governmental deci-

sions are made about education and forwarded to the local level of schools, teachers, and children. Stone defines policy as a "rational attempt to attain objectives" (1997, p. 37); and indeed, a policy is an agenda or set of objectives that legitimize the values, beliefs, and attitudes of its authors (Prunty, 1985). Yet, in spite of the impact of government, politics, and policy in education, educators still lack a critical understanding of government, political parties, politics, and political ideology (Freire, 1998). With increasing movement toward standardization and centralization in education (see Cuban, 1998; Dale, 1997; Kaestle & Smith, 1982), it is more important than ever for educators to understand the impact of policy on the lives of children, schools, and themselves. Educators need to become savvy political players (Prunty, 1984).

For more than 15 years educators have argued that educational policy analyses need to move beyond functionalist assumptions toward alternative, critical examinations (Apple, 1998; Ball, 1990; Marshall, 1997; Prunty, 1985; Shannon, 1991). During these same 15 years, there have been dramatic changes in the types of policies that are directed toward changing education. As the federal government's role in education increases (Kaestle & Smith, 1982), there has been a move from specific, categorical programs (such as Title I/Chapter 1) toward broader, more visionary programs (such as the America Reads Challenge) that provide states and local districts with the responsibility of carrying out the federal government's ideological views of how schools should be organized (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994).

Deliberations about the meanings of these policies and their implications for children, teachers, and schools need to be conducted in new ways—ways that are less concerned with the system as it currently exists, but rather consider how the system can change to meet the needs of diverse individuals. Different "readings" of educational policies are needed. This point should become evident on closer consideration of the differences between functionalist reads of policy, compared with the potential for evaluating policy when critical theory is applied.

Functionalist Analyses of Policy

Although policies can and should be read in many different ways, the most common reading reflects functional assumptions regarding

policy (Prunty, 1985). Functionalism, which often plays out as a "systems theory" view of a phenomenon, reflects the belief that all societies possess basic functions that are essential to their survival (Bennett & LeCompte, 1990). Drawing from analogies from biology, society is likened to a human system that needs to have all structures operating effectively and in cooperation with one another in order to maintain homeostasis. A healthy system is one in a state of equilibrium. Because it is imperative to maintain the equilibrium of the system, conflict is viewed as detrimental, and change only occurs through gradual means as the system evolves and adapts to outside influences.

Educational systems are considered one of the key structures of society, along with families and other community organizations. When one structure is unable to carry out its basic function, another structure must compensate in order for the entire system to continue. As an example, the America Reads Challenge makes sense from a functionalist perspective. National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) scores showed that U.S. students were not doing well enough in reading, so community organizations were called in to help schools compensate for this problem—other parts of the system were called on to help restore a sense of equilibrium.

Because functionalism has been the prevailing theoretical framework throughout the 20th century (Bennett & LeCompte, 1990), its impact on policy analysis has been pervasive. As educators, we employ functionalist analyses of our practice, sometimes almost daily, as we ask "what works." Functionalist analyses help determine if a curricular innovation fits in a classroom and if it effects perceived changes in children's learning. However, functionalist analyses do not consider historical, social, or political aspects of education. They do not ask where an innovation came from and what the broader political consequences might be. This does not mean that functionalist analyses are limited to specific political orientations—both conservatives and liberals can, and do, read policies functionally. Within a functionalist framework, policies are viewed as necessary tools to help maintain the structures within society.

Max Weber was perhaps one of the first social theorists to consider the "bearing of a phenomenon on the 'survival' of a system," and he is often credited with taking an enormous step toward bridging the gap between the natural and social sciences by treating social sciences

in a scientific and systematic way (Parsons, as cited in Weber, 1947, p. 17). While Weber considered functional analyses to be useful for practical illustration and for certain circumstances in which it may be the only available way to determine the processes of social action in order to explain a given phenomenon, he warned that functional analysis should only be the beginning of the analytic process; in fact, he warned that relying solely on functional explanations is "highly dangerous" (Weber, 1947, p. 107). Weber encouraged analysts to consider how an action came about and what motives determine it, an aspect of analysis that draws on Marxist theory. This point has often been overlooked by those who rely solely on functionalist analyses.

Functionalist analyses result in an objective and mechanical analysis that accepts the policy makers' definitions and assumptions about what is problematic with the system (Shannon, 1998). In other words, a functionalist analysis of the America Reads program would accept the premise that there is a reading crisis in the United States and elements of our society must be mobilized in order to compensate for the crisis. Functionalist analysis does not question the definition of reading or the assumption of crisis. A functionalist analysis of the policy would remain apolitical and objective (Marshall, 1997), with efforts directed toward calculating the effects of the program, such as improvement in reading scores. There would be no question of where the policy came from, or who will benefit from the policy, nor would such analysis question the relationships of power that are central to critical analyses.

The role of the policy analyst within a functionalist frame is to assess the worth of a program in relation to the existing system. The analyst would strive to maintain a measure of objectivity, and to assess as neutrally as possible how the policy "works." For example, with the America Reads policy, it would be important for the functional analyst to determine if America Reads tutors working with young children is helping them learn to read, and if the children and tutors are bringing some measure of stability to the system. In other words, the analyst would question whether or not the tutors are helping to fix what's broken by improving the reading ability of children in ways that are measurable on standardized tests of reading.

It is important to note that change, from a functionalist stance, is difficult to achieve because efforts are directed toward maintaining the

balance of the system (Prunty, 1985), or the status quo. Although maintenance of the status quo may be the desired outcome for some, for those who are striving to effect change in education this type of analysis provides insufficient information. An alternative can be found in the application of critical theory to policy.

Critical Theory and Policy Analysis

Critical theory offers an alternative "read" of policies that can provide insight into the broader implications a policy may hold for education. Drawn from the work of Marx, as well as Kant and the Frankfurt School, critical theorists focus on issues of power, domination, and repression (see Giroux, 1997, for an historical account of the work of the Frankfurt School). Critical theorists question functionalist reads of policy because these reads are insufficient in addressing issues of equality in ways that would resolve injustice. (See Table 1 on page 8 for a comparison of questions for functional analysis and critical analysis.) By recognizing the historical and subjective experiences of individuals within society, critical theorists generally attempt to understand the broader political, social, and cultural processes that influence the construction of meaning as they strive toward an overarching aim of human emancipation (Prunty, 1984). Marshall (1997) wrote the following:

> Critical theory is primarily concerned with issues of social justice and problematizes the institutions and structures of society and education that operate powerfully to maintain unequal and unjust social and political relations. It focuses on the methods and meanings of domination, including the historical evolution of ideologies that buttress power to reveal the politicization of knowledge and language. (p. 17)

John Prunty was perhaps one of the first individuals to apply critical theory to the analysis of educational policy. Because of the subjectivist assumptions about social reality, coupled with the radical change represented by the critical theorists' approach, Prunty positioned critical theory outside the functionalist paradigm (see Prunty, 1984). He argued that functionalism and systems theories are "inappropriate perspectives" (p. 35) for educational policy analyses because the assumptions of functionalist analyses are "inherently inimical to understanding or acting upon the educational problems that polices

Table 1
Core Questions for Policy Analysis

Functionalist analysis	Critical analysis
What are the measurable effects of the policy?	Where has the policy come from?
How does the policy "work" or fit within the current system?	What are the social, political, and historical aspects of the policy?
	What are the values of the author? How are key aspects defined?
	What are the consequences?
	Who stands to benefit?
	Who is left out?

are meant to remedy" (p. 35). As a result, Prunty placed an emphasis on simultaneously understanding the workings of school and the workings of society because values, interest, and power permeate all aspects of schooling.

This book will consider how the policy reflects broader aspects of U.S. democracy, particularly values and motives that are embedded in this policy that reflect a particular vision of society. Marshall (1997) explained further why this is an essential element of critical study:

> Critical theorists place at the center of the analysis the power, policies and structures that restrict access; their work often demonstrates how privilege is maintained and the disempowered and silenced are kept that way, raising serious questions about the role of schools in the social and cultural reproduction of social classes, gender roles, and racial and ethnic prejudice. (p. 9)

By recognizing that policy is the legitimization of values, critical analyses move beyond functionalism to consider the values, beliefs, and attitudes of those who author and implement these policies by asking, "Why are things the way they are?" and "Who benefits?"

The notions of conflict or crisis that cause the initiation of change become a central question in critical theory, because it is important to consider the motive for a particular policy.

From a critical perspective, it then becomes the responsibility of the policy analyst to consider not just how a particular policy is operating within a certain context, but more importantly who authored the policy, why it was authored, and what the contradictions and omissions of the policy are. Of the educational analyst who applies critical theory to policy, Marshall (1997) wrote:

> Such an analyst must be adept in the political world to be effective and to provide methods for the oppressed to gain power, while viewing school policy critically to expose oppressive structures, including ways that oppressed unknowingly cooperate with their oppressors. (pp. 9–10)

This notion of "unknowingly cooperating" with one's oppressors reflects Marxist notions of "false consciousness," or what Chomsky (1999) most recently has referred to as "consent without consent" (p. 43). This construct can result from functionalist analyses that limit the view of a phenomenon to a surface or operative consideration. The result is a tendency to evaluate a policy as "good" based on its capacity to fit within the current system.

Critical analyses, on the other hand, cause one to consider not only the appearance, or the surface features of a policy, but to simultaneously take into account what Marx called the essence of a phenomenon (see Heilbroner, 1980, for an explanation of the central elements of Marxism). The "essence" involves moving beyond the surface, or functionalist perspective, to see the underlying motives and values as one traces the history of a phenomenon that has come to fruition in a particular time and place within society. Considering the essence of a policy or program causes a policy analyst to question where a policy has come from and why it is or is not feasible, as it evaluates the values that influence the policy's inception and implementation (Marshall, 1997).

A Brief Word on Politics and Power

Because politics, crystallized in the form of policy, involve the "relations of power among people" (Gee, 1996, p. 22) that ultimately structure our world, analyses of policy will inevitably include talk of power. Indeed, the meaning of *political* encompasses "the entire way we organize social life along with the power relations that inform its

underlying social practices" (Aronowitz & Giroux, 1993, p. 136). Stone (1997) writes that "politics is the sphere of emotion and passion, irrationality, self interest, shortsightedness, and raw power" (p. 373). Indeed, politics is "a struggle for power and a struggle to limit, resist, and escape from power" (Clegg, 1989, p. 207).

Issues of power are bound inextricably to matters of education and schooling as well. Schools are sites of struggle for power, knowledge, and meaning (Giroux, 1988), and any analysis of educational policy and practice that does not include discussions of power would miss the "complex dynamics of ideology and power [that] both organize and mediate the various experiences and dimensions of school life" (Giroux, 1988, p. 31).

Generally speaking, power is conceptualized by one of two schools of thought. One school can be traced from Hobbes to the modern theories by Luke, Locke, and Dahl that consider what power *is*, while a second position on power can be traced from Machiavelli to postmodernist theories of Lockwood, Clegg, and Foucault that consider what power *does* (see Clegg, 1989). Because politics involves relationships and strategic moves, it is this second school of thought, with its emphasis on the *strategies* of power, which is central to this discussion of the America Reads phenomenon. Power is dependent on alliances, relationships, and strategies to attain its "practical accomplishment" (Clegg, 1989, p. 202); therefore it is necessary to interpret these alliances and strategies, to consider what power *does*, how it limits or facilitates the values and beliefs of certain groups, and how power contributes to false consciousness.

This particular discussion of power in relation to America Reads will draw largely from the work of Foucault. Foucault wrote that power "needs to be considered as a productive network which runs through the whole social body, much more than a negative instance whose function is repression" (1980, p. 119).

In other words, power can produce and facilitate phenomena, not just limit them. In particular, Foucault considered three types of power that could be employed strategically: *sovereign power*, which is a function of the state or the law; *biopower*, which is targeted at controlling the population in general through normalization; and *disciplinary power*, which functions through surveillance, normalization, or control targeted toward particular groups or collections of individ-

uals (Foucault, 1980). This strategic use of power enables us to take into account power's dialectic nature, showing interconnecting patterns of contradictions and relationships (Giroux, 1981).

Findings of the Study

Throughout my engagement with America Reads I learned that my initial assumption that teachers would be offended by the program was wrong—not one person I met was offended. In fact, no one openly questioned why America Reads was conceived or considered necessary. Instead, I heard time and again that it was a "good program," or a "good idea." This "good idea" took hold and spread so rapidly throughout the United States (see *Reading Today*, August/September, 1998) that, at the time of this writing, there are 1,000 colleges and universities throughout the United States, Puerto Rico, Micronesia, and the Virgin Islands committing federal work-study students to meeting the America Reads Challenge ([online] http://www.ed.gov/inits/americareads/index.html).

In addition to the breadth of the federal America Reads program, there were state-level initiatives that were remarkably similar to the federal proposal. As one example, the state of Pennsylvania began a *Read to Succeed* program in 1998 that claimed to be "a plan to ensure that Pennsylvania students are skilled readers before they leave the third grade...by providing assistance to ensure that Pennsylvania's third-grade students meet third-grade reading standards" (Lawson, 1998, p. 1).

Pennsylvania Governor Tom Ridge (who was seeking re-election at the time) expressed concern that 39% of Pennsylvania's students read at a "basic level," 1% below that reported for third graders nationally, and that these students may not be prepared for future grades or the workforce. He made grants available on a matching fund basis to schools willing to provide intervention strategies that included assessment, involving parents, family literacy programs, additional instructional time and teacher training (Lawson, 1998). This proposal was part of a larger vision to reform Pennsylvania schools that included tougher and higher standards, charter schools, and family literacy initiatives.

Before considering the federal government's official position on America Reads, it is necessary to situate this policy in the larger perception that there is a crisis in education.

The Crisis in Education

The acceptance and subsequent success of America Reads may be due in part to a widely held belief that U.S. children are not reading well enough, and that reading well is necessary for a good education and later success in life. At the time America Reads was conceptualized, and, later, while it was getting underway at Penn State and other sites, the nation was in the throes of what was largely perceived to be a "literacy crisis" (see Aronowitz & Giroux, 1993; Chall, 1996; Hirsch, 1987; Kozol, 1985; McQuillan, 1998; Shannon, 1998; Smith, 1995 for different perspectives on this crisis). Using the language of crisis to describe U.S. education is not unprecedented; it began with the "great debate" in reading (Chall, 1996) and continued with the National Commission on Excellence in Education's report "A Nation at Risk" in 1983, the "America 2000/Goals 2000: Educate America Act" of 1994, the "Improving America's Schools Act" of 1994, and "A Nation Still at Risk" (1998). By the time the America Reads Challenge was first introduced to the United States in August of 1996, there had been nearly 20 years of messages that U.S. schools in general, and literacy education in particular, were in jeopardy.

Although Gee (1996) claims that "talk about the significance of literacy is often disguised talk about other matters, a way of avoiding less acceptable social concerns," masking "deeper and more complex social problems" (p. 22), the voice of political groups and the media (see Ball, 1990) gave the literacy crisis new momentum as the neoliberal values of the Clinton administration in the 1990s became more concrete and widespread (Boron & Torres, 1996). Luke (1998) has described the phenomenon as follows:

> The press and politicians have become artists at "playing the literacy card," directly and indirectly blaming schools and teachers for systemic economic and social problems, from unemployment and underemployment, to linguistic and cultural change in communities, to shifting formations of cultural identity and family. (p. 311)

As the influence of neoliberal values reached throughout the world (Pannu, 1996), calls for improved skills, improved education, and particularly better national standards, became increasingly popular as a solution to this "crisis." This is relevant because the America Reads Challenge is built on the underlying assumptions of this debate, and has thrived in a climate in which Americans increasingly believe that the primary purpose of schools is to better prepare workers who will secure the economic future of U.S. society. Aronowitz and Giroux (1993) explain:

> What is most striking in the current debate is the relationship that is being drawn between the state of the U.S. economy, with its lagging domestic performance and its shrinking preeminence in the international marketplace, and the failure of the schools to educate students to meet the economic needs of the dominant society. In some cases it is argued that schools are in fact responsible for this crisis; in other instances more restrained voices have claimed that, although schools may not have caused the economic crisis, they can ameliorate it by promoting excellence and economic leadership. These and other voices share a discourse that defines economic rationality as the model of public reason. (p. 214)

Neoliberals, who consider educational reform as necessary for securing a strong economy (Fowler, 1995), emphasize the accumulation of "human capital," citizens who are supposedly well-equipped to adjust to the ebb and flow of a market economy (Smith & Scoll, 1995). Reading becomes a key to securing this human capital because literacy is considered a cornerstone, or a basic need for all citizens who will ultimately succeed in the workforce (Clinton, 1997, February 28).

What is interesting about this so-called crisis is that, although there are certainly some children who experience a crisis in their encounters with print and schools (see Allington & Walmsey, 1995), most Americans do not experience a literacy crisis in their personal lives (Shannon, 1998). Indeed, most parents are "happy" with the public schools their children attend (Ascher, Fruchter, & Berne, 1996, p. v). Aronowitz and Giroux (1993) note that the attention devoted to the literacy crisis is a misplaced emphasis that generates fear and anxiety in order to introduce new school policies. And indeed, there are many policies and programs in place to address the crisis (Shannon, 1998), the America Reads Challenge being one of the most recent.

The general population's fear regarding potential illiteracy and its consequences for U.S. citizens has not escaped the attention of politicians. U.S. Secretary of Labor Robert Reich (1988a) suggests that policy makers are proficient at crafting policy that will give voice to "half-articulated fears and hopes" of the public (p. 5), allowing people to build on these fears and hopes as they forward their own ideological beliefs about what is good and necessary for U.S. society. The commonly held belief that education, grounded in the ability to read, can equalize social and economic injustices, coupled with the efforts of policy makers who are adept at targeting issues of widespread concern, has contributed to a general acceptance of federal involvement in literacy education by most Americans. The result has been that literacy initiatives by policy makers, such as America Reads, are often supported by the public because the issue has such broad appeal (Reich, 1988a).

Although the legislation of America Reads may have failed to pass through Congress by its self-imposed deadline of June 30, 1998 (Sack, 1998), it has nevertheless become part of the culture of U.S. schools and communities. The combination of the "literacy crisis" with the increasing influence of neoliberalism, which emphasizes linking schools to work while affirming the need for community and the reform of key infrastructures such as public education, has contributed to the viability of the America Reads program for a large portion of the U.S. population. At the very least, these neoliberal values, which seem to be largely unquestioned by Americans in general (Fowler, 1995), may contribute to the general acceptance of the program.

America Reads was a markedly different type of educational reform. With America Reads, the federal government initiated change in education by calling on communities and volunteers, rather than working with schools to initiate changes in literacy education programs, as had been done with past reform efforts such as Title I/Chapter 1 programs. As a result, the program largely by-passed schools and teachers by promoting the government's vision of what is good and best for schools (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994), in spite of language that indicated local control and local reform (see Rasco, 1997, as one of many examples).

The federal government took on a new and different role, as it attempted to normalize U.S. schools and communities with its influence and vision of what every U.S. citizen needs to be. It is this im-

age of America Reads as being good and necessary for American education that must be slowed, examined, and questioned. It is my hope that this book will slow the speed of this particular educational reform effort so that we can better understand the underlying values and implications that this federal program has for one community. This "slowing" will seek to place the program in context with other programs of its kind so educators avoid the dangers of "historical amnesia" (Popkewitz, 1998, p. 27) that seem prevalent in this information age. Chapter 2 takes an in-depth look at the public definition of America Reads, along with the public neoliberal goals and values, offered as the program began.

CHAPTER 2

The Making of America Reads: A Public View of the Policy

> Literacy can help give people the tools to make the most of their potential and prepare them for the 21st century, when a fully literate work force will be crucial to our strength as a Nation. It is in the interest of all of us to do all we can to ensure the reading success of every young child by the end of the third grade. (Riley & Wofford, 1997)

This statement aptly captures the sentiments of a neoliberal administration that has increasingly involved itself in matters of schools. Here, U.S. Secretary of Education Richard Riley and CEO of the Corporation for National Service, Harris Wofford, were attempting to win votes for the America Reads Challenge from then Speaker of the House of Representatives Newt Gingrich and his fellow politicians. The proposal of the America Reads Challenge marked a new and different role in education for the federal government, particularly reading education, as it tried to effect change through a unique program. The America Reads initiative offers an exclusive opportunity to view President Clinton's educational policies and a neoliberal perspective on the ideal role education should play in U.S. society. To understand the evolution of America Reads, the program must be situated in its political, economic, and historical contexts as we seek to understand the public goals and values that were put forth with this policy.

The Political Phenomenon That Made America Reads Viable: The Rise of Neoliberalism

As governor of Arkansas, Clinton earned a reputation for attempting to reinvent government and reform the Democratic party, claiming that his ideas were "neither liberal nor conservative, neither Republican or Democratic. They are new" (Clinton & Gore, 1992, p. viii). And indeed, when Clinton entered the White House, he was the first president to embrace neoliberal ideologies, along with key members of his administration (Fowler, 1995), including Vice President Al Gore, Secretary of Education Richard Riley, Secretary of Labor Robert Reich, Secretary of the Interior Bruce Babbitt, and America Reads Challenge National Director Carol Rasco. It is important to have an understanding of neoliberalism and the values that are representative of this ideology in order to better grasp why a policy such as America Reads could be conceived and ultimately acceptable to so many individuals. The values promoted most often by neoliberals in their writings are part of the "public definition" (Fowler, 1995) of America Reads. (See the overview of core neoliberal values in Table 2.) Values that are not part of the public definition of America Reads will be explored as hidden values in Chapter 3.

Table 2
Overview of Core Neoliberal Values
(based on Fowler, 1995)

Core neoliberal values	Brief explanation
Economic growth	The most prominent value of neoliberals. Their key to maintaining the standard of living in the United States.
Community	A shared citizenship that helps "them" become more like "us" to share common values.
Efficiency	The move toward accountability and standardization in education.
Equality	Perceived fairness or social justice that includes a sharing of social benefits such as health care and education.

As a political ideology, neoliberalism has been recognized since 1969 in the writings of Charles Peters of *The Washington Monthly* and his protégés—including Michael Kingsley of *The New Republic* and James Fallows of *The Atlantic* (Fowler, 1995). Since the 1980s, neoliberalism has become the hegemonic ideology (Pannu, 1996), reflecting the successful attempt of a dominant class to forward its ideals, particularly as the key values of neoliberalism become widespread throughout the world (Boron & Torres, 1996) and increasingly adopted by the public. This acceptance of neoliberal tenets, particularly the relation of a good education to a good job and strong economy, made America Reads a viable policy proposition during Clinton's second term in the late 1990s. Indeed, America Reads is typical of the neoliberal paradigm because it is normative in nature and expects the state to play a minimalist role as it embodies key neoliberal values (Pannu, 1996).

Neoliberals differ from traditional liberals primarily in their view of how to address issues of social inequity and in their beliefs about the role of the federal government (Fowler, 1995; Shannon, 1998). Like traditional liberals, neoliberals are concerned with issues of social justice; however, their definitions of equity issues, their solutions for these problems, and their opinions of what the government should do, differ from more traditional liberal views (Fowler, 1995). For example, although traditional liberals tend to view social inequity as the result of discrimination by a powerful group toward a less powerful group, neoliberals tend to see the economy as the solution to most social issues and will sacrifice almost anything to grow the economy. The result is that they seek to reduce and privatize social programs (Shannon, 1998).

Typically traditional liberals have addressed issues of social inequity through proposals of special programs that would help minority groups. They believe that a large government can be the leader in helping the downtrodden (Peters, 1982; Reich, 1987). U.S. President Lyndon Johnson's Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965, with special programs such as Title I, is perhaps the most illustrative example of liberal values. As part of the Johnson Administration's "war on poverty," ESEA was founded on the belief that "proper schooling could prevent poverty" (Tyack & Cuban, 1995, p. 27), as it became the centerpiece of an equal opportunity policy that was primarily concerned with ensuring that needy schools and stu-

dents received federal money (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994). Although neoliberals do not reject liberal policies such as ESEA (as shown by Clinton's reauthorization of the bill) they tend to believe that such programs address symptoms rather than causes (Fowler, 1995), and further undercut the sense of community that they value (Reich, 1987).

Neoliberals do not believe that the federal government should play such an active, albeit regulatory or accounting role, as was the case with the ESEA (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994). Rather, they believe that a large government should initiate broader policies that provide a visionary and facilitative role that moves a "national community" toward that vision (Fowler, 1995). President Clinton explained in a speech to a conference of mayors:

> During my time as President, instead of trying to either impose ready-made solutions from Washington or to ignore the problems altogether, we have tried to give you and your communities the support you need and the tools you need to meet your own challenges—to use the national government to empower local leaders, to make the grass-roots progress that each and every one of you can celebrate. (1997, June 23)

Evidence of this belief that the federal government is capable of providing a vision that local leaders can take up is seen in the Clinton Administration's reauthorized version of the ESEA in 1994. The act provided an overarching vision that *all* children should be taught to the same content and performance standards as it allocated the resources and decision making to a local level (Smith & Scoll, 1995). Likewise, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act pushed for national standards and high academic achievement which would be funded through local and state initiatives. Rather than focusing on a direct provision of services, something liberal policies would do, *Goals 2000* focused on "helping states, school districts, and schools engage in the difficult work of school reform" (Stevenson, 1995, p. 458) by creating incentives and support to encourage state governments and local school districts to move their students toward the government's neoliberal vision of higher standards and higher academic achievement (Riley, 1995).

With the America Reads Challenge, the Clinton Administration proposed a "big government" vision of a universally literate U.S. workforce, which they believe is possible through a broad federal pol-

icy supported by local community efforts. This policy embodies the key neoliberal values identified by Fowler (1995) as economic growth, community, efficiency, and equality. These values are interdependent and often overlap, but they form the basis of education policies developed by neoliberal policy makers and politicians. These values form a definition of neoliberalism that would be supported by neoliberals who espouse these values in their speeches, writings, and policies. A close examination of these values will show how they form the basis of the America Reads policy.

Economic Growth

Neoliberals consider economic growth to be the sole savior of the United States (Fowler, 1995; Shannon, 1998). The economy is the key to maintaining the standard of living and protecting the "American Dream" as the United States faces increased global competition (Shannon, 1998). In order for the United States to secure sufficient future growth, neoliberals believe that strategic, long-range planning, coupled with a focus on industry and the modernization of infrastructures, particularly public education, is key (Fowler, 1995).

Since the early 1980s, neoliberalism has increasingly influenced key international economic groups, particularly the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (Boron & Torres, 1996). Neoliberalism guided the economic development and public policy of Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan, and continued through the Bush and Clinton administrations to the extent that the imprint of neoliberalism can be seen extensively throughout the world, even in developing countries. Pannu (1996) explains,

> The promotion [of neoliberalism] is effected through the well-coordinated set of macroeconomic stabilization and structural adjustment policies of the supranational institutions such as the IMF and World Bank. The IMF demands adoption and insists on the application of these macroeconomic policies by a large number of Third World debtor states, policies that bear the unmistakable imprint of neoliberalism. Furthermore the mechanisms used to secure compliance approach market colonialism. Similarly the World Bank, which is also controlled by the major capitalists states, uses its enormous financial power, delicately fused with technocratically anointed and bureaucratically produced knowledge, to "persuade" in myriad ways developing country ruling elites to follow policies that are consistent with and rooted in economic liberalism. (p. 93)

At an international level, the influence of neoliberalism has rapidly moved countries toward globalization and a market economy (Boron & Torres, 1996; Pannu, 1996).

It is this neoliberal language of the market and a global economy that has infiltrated the rationales of neoliberal educational policies, particularly those directed toward reading education. For President Clinton and other members of his administration, reading education is viewed as the "linchpin" (Shannon, 1998, p.157), or initiating event, that will allow educational restructuring to succeed. According to neoliberals, successful changes in public education will ultimately enable displaced workers to move easily as free agents in a fluctuating job market, which is considered necessary for the continued economic growth and competitiveness of the United States. President Clinton has explained, "We are the most productive economy in the world. There will always be changes in this economy. There will always be new jobs being created and some going away" (1997, September 12). Inevitable fluctuations in the job market and economy support the neoliberal rationale for the type of education that places emphasis on educating future workers. For example, President Clinton encouraged students at the Four Seasons Elementary School in Maryland to "read well" and to "keep on learning for a lifetime" because,

> a lot of you [the students] will be doing jobs that are different from the jobs your parents are doing. A lot of you will wind up doing jobs that nobody has even thought up yet. They don't even exist yet. (1997, September 8)

In order for Americans to continue to maintain a high standard of living and to survive in the face of this unknown future, education and skills training become central to a neoliberal agenda. Visionary legislation such as the America Reads Challenge is a requisite step toward achieving this ideal.

Community

Community, or shared citizenship, is considered a primary value of the neoliberals. Fowler (1995) explains that neoliberals have been concerned with the decline of community since the end of World War II, a phenomenon they attribute to the deterioration of key institutions, such as universal military service and public schools, and to political differences between Republican and Democratic parties that have

failed to maintain this sense of community. One way they hope to restore community values in the United States is through a "communitarian ideology with broad popular appeal" (Reich, in Fowler, 1995, p. 48). This means that there is a strong commitment to growth and moving together to obtain common goals.

Through a policy such as America Reads, neoliberals hope to join neighborhoods and individuals around a common goal—ensuring that all children will be able to read well and independently. Secretary of Education Richard Riley has evoked images of community-building by stating,

> We need to remember that the pioneers who crossed the Mississippi set out as a community, bound together with a common goal. They surely had their differences, but they came together for the common good. And that is a lesson we must heed now in 1996. (1996, February 28)

President Clinton has called on every sector of society—from business leaders to government officials, retirees, and university work study students—to take on his common goal and volunteer as reading tutors. This goal of helping children to read has gained broad popular appeal. One university administrator who talked about the popularity of the America Reads program echoed this appeal by explaining,

> I just think it is one of those very good ideas. When people hear about it they say 'That's great! I'd like to be involved, I want to do it.' How can you say it's not a good idea to help little kids learn to read better. (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997)

Efficiency

The neoliberal value of efficiency can be defined as "output maximization, excellence, standards, or accountability" (Fowler, 1995, p. 46). It is tied very closely to neoliberal values of economic growth and equity, and reflects an ever-growing relationship between the federal government and business leaders of large corporations, who have formed task forces on education (Shannon, 1998).

Realized in the policy of America Reads, efficiency can be seen in the emphasis on higher academic achievement, high standards, and by the push for national assessments to prove this achievement. Clinton has emphasized this issue repeatedly throughout his tenure as president:

> I believe that the single, most important thing we can do to give our children world-class education is to insist on high national standards, so that we make sure that we've done everything we can to see that every single child learns what he or she knows to succeed in the exciting world of the 21st century. (1997, July 25)

Clinton also claimed that,

> The only thing that's going to wreck our schools is if we hide our head in the sand, we don't say what the standards are, we don't measure whether our kids are meeting them, and we say, well, they just can't make it because they're poor or they come from some disadvantaged background. That is a load of bull. We need to get this out in the open and make sure all of our kids can meet these standards. (1997, June 23)

America Reads becomes, from a neoliberal perspective, a tool for ensuring that *all* children, regardless of their background, can meet the standards and are able to read (as measured by the NAEP assessments)—thereby becoming efficient members of society.

Equality

To neoliberals, equality (or equity as it is sometimes referred to) includes perceived fairness, impartiality, and social justice (Fowler, 1995). They believe that a fair distribution of social benefits, including healthcare, education, and military service, reinforces a sense of national community (Reich, 1987). Most neoliberal discussions of equity revolve around issues of class, rather than race or gender, and they fear that the increasing gap between the rich and poor will result in a rigid class system in the United States (Fowler, 1995; Pannu, 1996). In order to overcome inequity in U.S. society, neoliberals strive to provide opportunities, rather than free gifts, for those who will work for it. President Clinton explains,

> I have followed a very simple strategy. I think it's the basic American bargain—opportunity for all/responsibility from all, and then telling every single person if you will be responsible, if you will seize your opportunity, if you believe in the Constitution, the Declaration of Independence, and the Bill of Rights, you don't have to tell us anything else. We don't care what your race is, we don't care what your religion is, we don't care where you started out in life. If you're willing to work hard and share our values, we'll join arm and arm with you and walk together into the future. You're part of our America. (1996, August 28)

With a program such as America Reads, the neoliberal value of equity is possible for *all* children provided they are willing to work hard, learn to read, share neoliberal values, and attain a good education that will secure future success. Reading well and independently becomes evidence of a rugged individualism (Pannu, 1996), of sharing in Clinton's vision for the creation of an equitable "our America" (Clinton, 1996, August 28).

Clinton's Arkansas Legacy as a Precursor to America Reads

For those who were familiar with Clinton's work with Arkansas schools, which reflected his neoliberal ideals, a policy such as America Reads would come as no surprise. As the longest-serving governor in the United States, Clinton was noted for placing education central in his agenda (Clinton, 1992; Smith & Scoll, 1995). Core neoliberal values were evident in his efforts to reform Arkansas public education. While governor, Clinton pushed for school choice and increased teacher salaries, reflecting an emphasis on strengthening public education and ultimately the community. He also encouraged statewide testing of students with public reporting of the results and required parental involvement, goals that are aligned with the neoliberal value of efficiency. Under Clinton's governorship, those who did not follow the educational goals were dealt serious consequences. For example, students who dropped out of high school in Arkansas would lose their driver's license. Clinton encouraged support for education beyond high school by establishing a bond program to help parents finance college for their children, as well as an Arkansas Academic Challenge Scholarship to provide college aid for middle income and poor students who had good grades and no record of drug use.

Clinton's education reforms in Arkansas were often the result of hard-fought battles. For instance, in 1983 he met strong opposition from the teacher's union as he pushed for teacher competency tests. He won, and later claimed that these tests would result in better instruction from teachers (Clinton & Gore, 1992, p. 177). In 1990, he passed a statewide reform measure (Act 236) that was considered a forerunner of Goals 2000 (Riley, 1995). Additionally, as a member of

the National Governors' Association, Clinton led the bipartisan effort under President Bush for comprehensive statewide reform as he worked to develop the National Education Goals (Riley, 1995). These goals were later passed by the Clinton Administration as the Goals 2000: Educate America Act (Stevenson, 1995).

When Clinton campaigned for his first term as president, he was no stranger to education reform. In fact, he promised that his administration would provide a "real education President" (Clinton & Gore, 1992, p. 198). He pledged to pass an education reform package within his first 100 days in office. He vowed that he would put parents and children together in education, establish tough standards, reform schools through increases in Chapter 1 funding and a reduction in class size in the early grades, make schools safe, and provide alternative and continuing education programs (such as national apprentice-style programs, National Service Trust Funds, and worker retraining programs) (see Clinton & Gore, 1992). These goals were largely restated in the Call to Action for American Education, presented during the 1997 State of the Union address.

Once president, Clinton appointed Richard Riley Secretary of Education. Riley, like Clinton, brought to Washington a history of working with educational reform from his efforts as governor of South Carolina. In fact, he had built much of his political career around educational issues (Spring, 1998). Riley's South Carolina Education Improvement Act of 1984 was considered to be the "largest reform effort ever undertaken in the history of the state" (Pipho, 1984, p. 5). Key provisions of this $213 million reform package include: academic standards, testing, teaching (including loans for college students who wanted to teach, promotion based on academic achievement, increases in teacher salaries), management (including incentive programs to reward outstanding principals), accountability (through annual improvement plans and monitoring by the government's office), partnerships (including parenting classes), and an improved school climate (Pipho, 1984). Riley went on to serve with Clinton on the governors' panel that created the 1990 National Educational Goals.

Clinton's promises and rhetoric during his first campaign continued to resurface throughout both terms of his presidency. During his first 100 days as president, he passed the reauthorized version of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (also known as the Im-

proving America's Schools Act) while the 103d Congress was still in session. By 1994, the Goals 2000: Educate America Act was passed into law, providing financial support for communities and states working to improve their schools through what Riley described as

> a revolutionary management lever: broad authority from the U.S. Department of Education to waive burdensome federal regulations...it encourages the development of voluntary, world-class academic and occupational standards and asks states and school districts to set challenging academic standards. (Riley, 1995, p. 380)

These pieces of legislation help to define Clinton's human capital agenda, which "puts people first" (Clinton & Gore, 1992) while strengthening education and training for American people, and ultimately the U.S. economy in the global marketplace (Smith & Scoll, 1995). Human capital theory rests on the belief that "educational systems fulfill an important distributive function in preparing individuals for different roles in the social divisions of work and facilitating the efficient assignment of talent through competitive selection of the most skilled" (Boron & Torres, 1996, p. 108). President Clinton has reminded Americans time and again of his belief that education is important to economic well-being:

> We know two things about education in our country today. It's more important to our economic well-being than ever before, and we still don't have the educational quality or opportunities that our people need. The key to our economic strength in America today is growth in productivity—more products and services from each one of us. (Clinton & Gore, 1992, p. 131)

By the end of its first term, the Clinton Administration had set in place the mechanisms with which they hoped to change the public school system in the United States. But with the report of the NAEP assessments in 1994 and Riley's *Third Annual State of American Education Address* in 1996, Clinton faced his second campaign for president with little apparent evidence that his reforms were effecting any significant results. It was at the beginning of Clinton's second campaign for president that the administration, primarily the domestic and economic policy advisors, began to turn their efforts toward a new education piece (C. Rasco, personal communication, December 2,

1997), which would focus on early childhood and literacy, something that the administration felt was necessary for later educational and economic success. Ultimately this piece became the America Reads Challenge.

The History of America Reads: The Outgrowth of Clinton's Education Reform

According to President Clinton and Secretary of Education Riley, America Reads was initiated because U.S. school children were not performing well enough in reading. During Clinton's 1997 *State of the Union* address, he reported that the America Reads Challenge was launched because 40% of America's 8-year-olds could not read on their own. This statistic was first reported in the 1994 NAEP.

The NAEP delineates three distinct levels of reading: basic, proficient, and advanced. Clinton used the following example from *Charlotte's Web* by E.B. White to help explain these reading levels:

> Having promised Wilbur that she would save his life, she was determined to keep her promise. Charlotte was naturally patient. She knew from experience that if she waited long enough, a fly would come to her web; and she felt sure that if she thought long enough about Wilbur's problem, an idea would come to her mind. Finally, one morning toward the middle of July, the idea came. "Why how perfectly simple!" she said to herself. "The way to save Wilbur's life is to play a trick on Zuckerman. If I can fool a bug," thought Charlotte, "I can surely fool a man. People are not as smart as bugs." (1997, May 22)

According to Clinton, children reading at the "basic" level would be able to read the passage independently and tell what Charlotte promised to Wilbur, something that the NAEP statistic reported that 40% of U.S. fourth graders could not do. Children reading at the proficient level would additionally be able to describe why Charlotte thought she could fool Zuckerman. Advanced readers would be those who would recognize that Charlotte compares waiting for ideas to entrapping a fly.

Although this is the "official" reason for America Reads, the "unofficial" reason could be attributed to a concern that there was not sufficient evidence of significant changes in schools during Clinton's

first term as president. Even though Clinton's efforts to reform education began early in his presidency in the form of Goals 2000: Educate America Act and the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, the administration failed to see the results of their hopes to drastically change the public school system in the United States (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994). The administration wanted schools that would prepare highly skilled workers who could be "lifelong learners" (Clinton, 1997, February 28) and meet the challenges of the new global economy through high academic standards. The 1994 NAEP assessments would indicate that those changes were not happening in the same way or with the same speed the administration had planned.

In February of 1996, Richard Riley reported in his *Third Annual State of American Education Address* that U.S. schools *still* were not measuring up, in spite of these reform efforts. He proceeded to call on *all* Americans to "bound together with a common goal." Riley stated that "American education must reach for a new level of excellence, because of the most basic of reasons: our very prosperity as a nation—and the economic security and quality of each and every American family depends on it." Riley hinted at what lay ahead for U.S. schools as he encouraged Americans to "get reading again." Although he did not mention when or why Americans stopped reading, he did set the stage for Clinton's America Reads Challenge.

America Reads: A Public Definition

As explained earlier, President Clinton launched the America Reads initiative on August 27, 1996 while he was in Wyandotte, Michigan campaigning for a second term in office. The initial proposal of the America Reads legislation contained five major components, each of which reflects the core tenets of neoliberalism:

1. America's Reading Corps: This would be funded through a 5-year grant to support 30,000 reading specialists and tutor coordinators, including 11,000 AmeriCorps volunteers for the recruitment and training of 1 million volunteer reading tutors. This reflects the neoliberal value of community as all citizens are asked to pull together toward this common goal.

2. Parents as First Teachers Challenge Grants: These grants would provide $300 million over 5 years to help fund effective programs that would encourage parents to read and talk with their children. The standards or checklists of what parents should expect their children to be able to read or do when reading (for example, summarizing or stating the main idea) that are integral to these grants reflect a neoliberal value of efficiency.
3. Head Start expansion: This service that provides early intervention for at-risk children would be expanded to include an additional 1 million 3- and 4-year-olds by the year 2002 (80% of its original capacity), reflecting neoliberal values of equity.
4. Expansion of federal work-study program: An additional 100,000 college work-study students would be employed by universities to serve as reading tutors. This develops more fully the neoliberal emphasis on community by involving key infrastructures in the remaking of schools.
5. Accountability of results: Proposed America Reads legislation included $25 million toward an annual assessment by the NAEP which would determine the reading performance of a representative sample of fourth-grade children. This is an integral component of efficiency and the drive toward standardization in education that neoliberals value.

The Political Chronology of America Reads

President Clinton was able to initiate his plans for America Reads in the spring of 1997 when, due to a robust economy, the U.S. Congress allowed for some of the $225 billion dollar windfall from extra tax revenues to go to a few "small priorities" he promised early in his second term (R. Rankin, 1997, December 7). But in order for the program to continue as proposed in the legislation, it had to pass through Congress, a venture that proved less than easy.

Around the same time that the America Reads Challenge was getting underway, Representative Bill Goodling (R-Pennsylvania), Chairman of the House Education and Workforce Committee, developed the Reading Excellence Act. This was largely considered a Republican response to America Reads (Education Week, May 7, 1997),

because it represented an ideological challenge to the neoliberal agenda evident in America Reads. It reflected criticism from conservative groups that America Reads needed to be redrafted with more specific information about teaching reading based on scientifically based research; training teachers and parents based on this reliable, replicable research; conducting new research to address large-scale issues in reading; and providing incentives in the form of federal programs that would help schools and teachers to improve research based practice (Carmine & Meeder, 1997). Specifically, the bill, which passed the House on November 8, 1997, included four major goals:

1. Teach every child to read in their early childhood years, not later than the third grade.
2. Improve the reading skills of students and the instructional practices of teachers through the use of findings from reliable, replicable research in reading, including phonics,
3. Expand the number of high-quality family literacy programs.
4. Reduce the number of children who are inappropriately referred to special education due to reading difficulties.

In addition to providing specific definitions of reading and research, the Reading Excellence Act contained clauses that, much like America Reads legislation, provided money for family literacy programs (Title II, Even Start Family Literacy Programs), and subgrants for tutorial assistance (Section 15105), including funds for federal work-study students to work as reading tutors (Title III, Section 301). These tutorial assistance grants proved to be a point of contention for Democrats, who felt the grants were too much like vouchers (Sack, 1998), a proposal they fear will ruin public education (Riley, 1998).

Members of the educational community received these legislative proposals in very different ways. Professional reading organizations, particularly the International Reading Association (IRA), positively received the America Reads Challenge. IRA ran feature articles on America Reads in its bimonthly newspaper *Reading Today* in two issues after the program's inception (see *Reading Today*, Morrow & Walker, October/November 1997 and August/September, 1998). At the same time, both IRA and the National Council of Teachers of English (NCTE) published or promoted texts that focused specifically on

volunteer tutoring programs for young readers (see Herrmann, 1994; Laminack, 1998; Morrow & Walker, 1998; Roller, 1998; Walker & Morrow, 1997).

Meanwhile, unlike the America Reads Challenge, the Reading Excellence Act was actively opposed by these professional groups—not because of what the bill proposed to do (help children learn to read), but *how* it proposed to do it (based solely on limited definitions of reading and on reliable, replicable research). The same professional organizations that supported America Reads encouraged their members to write letters of protest in hope of changing the legislation.

After the Reading Excellence Act passed the House, it was largely referred to as the Reading Excellence Act/America Reads Challenge, or simply "literacy legislation" (Education Week, May 6, 1998). This shift reflected the efforts of members of the U.S. Department of Education, including Carol Rasco of America Reads, who worked with members of the Senate to change the legislation into a bipartisan bill that would be satisfactory to both parties (C. Rasco, personal communication, December 2, 1997). However, a compromise could not be reached, and Congress failed to pass the legislation by its self-imposed deadline of July 1, 1998, causing the $210 million for the legislation to be channeled to special education state grants (Sack, 1998). Secretary of Education Riley expressed his outrage at this failure by stating that "Congress flunked its own test and left for vacation" (Riley, 1998), as he and Carol Rasco vowed to continue their fight for a literacy bill when Congress reconvened in the fall of 1998 (C. Rasco, personal communication, July 8, 1998).

While the Reading Excellence Act/America Reads Challenge legislation did not cover the totality of the America Reads program, it did affect funding for the Parents as First Teachers Challenge Grants, the expansion of Head Start, and the training of tutors. The funding for federal work-study students and the AmeriCorps/Vista volunteers was continued through their respective government organizations. More specifically, this meant that the universities and colleges that support students through federal work-study funds could continue to offer America Reads as an option for these students without the legislation. President Clinton increased the federal work-study funding by $70 million for fiscal year 1999, a 50% increase since 1996 (Clinton, 1998, January 9). In addition, a federal work-study waiver offered

July 1, 1998, by the U.S. Department of Education provided universities with funding to support reading tutors working in both early childhood reading situations as well as family literacy programs (Wong, 1997). It also was expanded to include funding to pay federal work-study students to tutor children in grades K–9 in mathematics (Chronicle of Higher Education, 1998).

Funding for the AmeriCorps/Vista volunteers involved with America Reads programs is provided primarily through the Corporation for National Service. This corporation has three programs: AmeriCorps, Learn and Serve America, and the National Senior Service Corps. President Clinton's proposed budget for fiscal year 1999 included a total of $781 million for the Corporation for National Service, an increase of 14% over the 1998 budget, with $152 million earmarked specifically for the America Reads initiative (Fonesca, 1998), in spite of criticism that AmeriCorps was not living up to its goals (Selingo, 1998).

Compromising America Reads

Over the course of the first year of America Reads as the bill was subject to approval by the legislative branches of the House of Representatives followed by the Senate (which it ultimately failed to pass), there were some compromises that the Clinton administration was willing to make with regard to the bill, but others that it would not. These compromises primarily related to the neoliberal values of the "community" and "efficiency" reflected in America Reads.

One of the most obvious changes in the legislation that affected the community was the shift from the emphasis on training tutors to training teachers. Immediately after the public announcements of the America Reads Challenge, the program received harsh criticism for the perception that the proposal largely ignored teachers. Initially, Carol Rasco defended this so-called omission by stating that,

> We saw our piece of legislation (America Reads) as one piece of our overall challenge, a piece that addressed several of the issues, but not in depth. We tried to make sure all of our issues were addressed and for us, teacher preparation was to be done through Title V of the Higher Ed Reauthorization. (personal communication, December 2, 1997)

By the end of the first year, this emphasis had changed. In July of 1998, after the America Reads legislation failed to pass Congress, Rasco indicated this shift in emphasis: "We believe the *teacher training* and accompanying tutor training...are needed...and (we) will continue to work hard for passage" (personal communication, July 7, 1998, italics added). Earlier in the program there had not been concern that teacher training would be affected by this particular piece of legislation. But with the influence of the Reading Excellence Act and the efforts toward bipartisanship, modifications were made.

Community was also compromised by changes that would limit tutors primarily to federal work-study or AmeriCorps volunteers, as opposed to recruiting tutors from the population at large as the early rhetoric suggested. Clinton began to describe the America Reads program as "literally thousands of *college students*" who were in elementary schools "to make sure all our 8-year-olds can read" (Clinton, 1998, January 27, italics added) rather than as a vague "army of a million" tutors who could seemingly come from any walk of life, as it was referred to early in the program (Clinton, 1997, February 28). The community that was initially very broad became limited to a particular population that embodied an "ideal" group. These students, generally speaking, potentially embodied the values the Clinton administration held up as desirable, the dominant ideology of education and hard work that would secure the U.S. economy in the future. Banking on the sense of noblesse oblige that is pervasive among many college-age students (see Coles, 1988), the administration hoped that the efforts of these volunteers would eventually help others to buy into neoliberal goals.

The U.S. government also compromised the value of efficiency by altering its explicit definition of reading and how it should best be taught. Early in the program, Rasco claimed that the Department of Education would not take a stand in the debate on reading (personal communication, December 2, 1997). Instead, she held that local schools could decide how to best teach their children to read. Although it is questionable whether the government implicitly supported a particular view of reading based on the materials and training it issued for America Reads coordinators (see Edmondson, 1998), it would not publicly offer a limited definition, such as the one written into the Reading Excellence Act. Yet, by the end of the first year of the

program, the Department of Education was willing to accept the definitions of reading and research that were so heatedly debated among members of the reading research community (Riley, 1998).

What would not be changed was the "reading success equation" (Edmondson & Shannon, 1999), the fundamental belief that learning to read "well and independently" (Clinton, 1997, February 28) would somehow contribute to the strength of the economy for all Americans. This premise would continue as a strong, unquestioned theme for the legislation. The neoliberal emphasis that economic growth is indispensable for U.S. society (see Fowler, 1995) would not allow this value to be compromised.

Considering only the official values of the neoliberal agenda in America Reads leaves many questions unanswered. In order to critically read policies, it is necessary to consider what is said and what is unsaid. America Reads has hidden values and a hidden agenda that may be advanced by the policy in sometimes subtle but still powerful ways. These hidden values are the focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3

The Federal Government and America Reads: The Hidden Agenda

> So to tell you the truth, I believe [America Reads] was pretty much finalized then on the train trip as that...because there were policy people from the economic council and the domestic policy council on that trip [who] helped to craft what would ultimately be announced. And Keats Falling of the economic council took a very keen interest in the whole piece. I think perhaps his mother's a reading teacher in Michigan, or has been...and so they decided just to come out with this general parameter of America Reads Challenge, mobilizing volunteers and communities. (C. Rasco, personal communication December 2, 1997)

The train ride to the Democratic National Convention in the summer of 1996 must have been an exciting place. The anticipation of the upcoming convention, the stops to greet cheering crowds and the freedom to dream up an education policy the president could use in the campaign—no wonder America Reads conjures such patriotic images. But what was it that economic and domestic policy advisors were attempting to accomplish with this initiative? Why were economic policy advisors working on an education piece? What was this really about?

This chapter is an attempt to answer some of these questions by exploring the hidden values that are evident in the America Reads policy. These values are based on the words and goals of neoliberals central to the policy—President Clinton, Secretary of Education Riley,

and National Director of America Reads, Carol Rasco. Chapter 2 presented the official values of America Reads, the explicit values that neoliberals hope to accomplish. This chapter looks at the gaps in those values—the values behind the policies that are left unspoken.

Hidden Values: An Explanation

Although the official definition of the America Reads program clearly reflects the core values promoted by a broadly defined group of neoliberals (Fowler, 1995), the policy also reflects other, more hidden values of its authors. Similar to "the hidden curriculum" (Apple, 1993; Giroux, 1981), "hidden values" refers to an unspoken agenda that promotes a dominant ideology as it attempts "to erase or distort the experiences and perceptions of individuals and groups from specific backgrounds" (Leistyna, Woodrum, & Sherblom, 1996, p. 338). The hidden values, like the hidden curriculum, are evident in both the assumptions and norms of the program, as well as in the social expectations it espouses (Giroux, 1981).

Considering the hidden values of America Reads illuminates the distinctions between the espoused goals and values of the official definition of America Reads and the goals and values that actually emerge in practice. These hidden values were not identified by Fowler (1995) as core values of neoliberalism. Fowler's description of neoliberalism identified only the explicit values mentioned in the writing of neoliberals, hence the label "official." Neoliberals are proud of these official values. However, official values do not explain all the aspects of the America Reads legislation. This chapter delineates the federal government's attempted mobilization of four core, interrelated hidden values promoted by the federal conceptualization of the America Reads program: normalization, centralization, marketization, and personal interests.

Normalization

Normalization implies efforts toward homogenization with the goal of making "them" more like "us." Normalization involves moving everyone, regardless of background, toward the same goal or endpoint, often through "manufactured consent" (Herman & Chomsky, 1988). This hidden value risks sacrificing the diversity and quality of

those who do not fit within dominant, mainstream U.S. society. This is particularly evident when one considers the goals America Reads has for normalizing families, communities, children, and programs.

President Clinton's speech in which the America Reads program was first introduced is perhaps the most eloquent example of the hidden value of normalization (see p. 22). The image of Americans working hard and sharing in Clinton's values to become part of "our America" illustrates the neoliberal value of normalization. The neoliberal vision of freedom and equality is a narrow vision that seeks conformity to a particular view of democracy. The assumption that all Americans should hold the same vision stands in stark contrast to the rights and liberties established in the documents Clinton mentioned. The Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights were written to ensure liberty and justice, not to limit these basic rights by homogenizing U.S. citizens.

Based on the rhetoric in speeches made by Clinton, as well as Carol Rasco's notions about the possibilities for America Reads, it seems that the federal conceptualization of America Reads has underlying implications for normalizing children in their communities and families. It attempts to make families and communities that have typically been outside the mainstream more like the ideal image of middle-class U.S. families. The America Reads tutors are intended to help these families and communities meet this goal, whether they are tutoring children in schools or working with families in home settings. This became particularly clear when Carol Rasco explained her family and community rationale for the program:

> For many of us in previous years and for many middle income and upper children, not all, but many these days, we've had those tutors [in reading] all our lives, and no one ever saw my mother, my grandmother, my daddy, or my aunt and uncle as an indictment against the schools. You know, my two little sisters and I sat in the bathtub taking baths, and my daddy and mother would sit on the toilet and read picture books to us, in part to keep us from throwing all the water out of the tub.
>
> That was providing for Carol Rasco what many of these children today we want to reach are going to get through the tutoring program, because they have maybe only one parent in the home, that parent may or may not be able to read, that parent may have three jobs, two jobs, no time, doesn't know the importance of reading to their children, are tired, are on

> drugs. Many families, both parents are doing every thing they can to provide for the family. There are no grandparents in the same town or great aunts and uncles. Maybe they're not part of a religious community. So what we're doing in this tutoring program is really providing for many children what I was fortunate enough to have through a family and community structure. (personal communication, December 2, 1997)

If normalization is a hidden value of the America Reads program it raises questions about the efficacy, and even the morality, of attempts to make all families and communities the same. The expectation that all families need to have a similar structure and similar values potentially sacrifices the rich and varied homes and communities that are not considered part of mainstream America (Heath, 1983; Taylor, 1998). This is not to say that there are not families experiencing hardships and crisis such as Rasco describes. However, for those families who are working two or three jobs and are too tired to read to their children, more than a volunteer reading tutor is needed.

A serious consequence of normalization is the danger of drawing attention away from larger, more formidable issues in society. For many U.S. families, the pressing issue is not reading, but rather the struggle of their daily existence. Rasco recognizes that struggle by noting that some parents are working two or three jobs and may be tired; however, she does not question the conditions that force parents into those situations. Instead, she diverts attention from the issue of who the current economy is benefiting to propose that a tutor will compensate for these inadequacies in some way.

In spite of the neoliberal assertion that the economy is strong, many people are struggling to meet their daily needs, and the gap between the "haves" and the "have nots" is becoming greater (Aronowitz, 1994; Noble, 1994; Shannon, 1998). Issues of poverty (see Shannon, 1998), health care (see Kozol, 1995), homelessness (see Wright, 1997), and urban life (see Kozol, 1995) will not be ameliorated by the America Reads Challenge. By diverting attention and funding toward volunteer reading programs, educators fall prey to a system that increasingly ignores or downplays "soaring social problems that directly afflict American schools" (Berliner & Biddle, 1995, p. 214).

Educators also fall prey to the system when one considers how America Reads supports efforts to normalize children in schools. The assumption that all children will be able to read in English by the end

of the third grade (Clinton, 1997, May 22) has the potential to exclude a large number of children from Clinton's success equation. It is a contradiction inherent in the program that the diversity and ethnic differences that create a sense of pride in Americans are also something that need to be altered to make all citizens the same. Clinton's own words exemplify this contradiction:

> We have four school districts in America where there are more than 100 different native ethnic linguistic groups. That's a stunning statistic. But everybody has to be able to read in our common language of English, so this is very important. (1997, May 22)

In the same speech, Clinton promoted the America Reads program as a way to help deal with the growing diversity of U.S. society.

Not only does America Reads promote the idea that everyone must be able to read in a normalized "common language of English," but it also contributes to the normalization of instruction. In a speech to the 65th Annual Conference of Mayors, Clinton explained,

> And it won't matter whether a child is living on a Native American reservation or an inner-city neighborhood in Los Angeles, or remote town in the Ozarks of North Arkansas—they will all be able to get the same learning in the same way at the same time for the first time in history. And all of us, whether we have direct responsibility for the schools or not, have an obligation to get that done as quickly as possible. Secretary Riley and I are working to mobilize a million volunteers to make sure that by the year 2000 every 8-year-old, wherever he or she lives and whatever their native language is, can read independently by the third grade. (1997, June 23)

Some may hope that Clinton is attempting to address inequality in education through such standardization. However, in light of the different resources available to schools, as shown in the work of Kozol (1995), Oakes (1985), and others, there remain many unanswered questions about why the neoliberal standards for schools should be imposed as opposed to those that reflect the values of other groups, particularly those of local communities. Furthermore, Clinton, Rasco, and Riley do not address what will happen to children, who despite everyone's best efforts, do not read independently in English by the end of the third grade. By its very nature, this hidden value of normalization is exclusionary and discriminatory.

Although America Reads was promoted publicly as a "grass roots" movement (Rasco, 1997), or one that would require local decision making, sovereign power was used to ensure that the mechanisms for biopower, or control through normalization, were in place. The normalizing aspects of the program surfaced throughout the first year of its implementation, in spite of rhetoric that suggested local control. The U.S. Department of Education launched several efforts to ensure that the programs being implemented throughout the country were more similar than different. From the federal work-study training session held in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in July 1997, to "America Reads roundtables" facilitated by Rasco in communities such as Dallas, Texas to America Reads conferences in Baltimore, Maryland and other major cities, it was clear that the federal government had more than a "hands off" approach to the program. Videos were created for those who could not attend the training sessions (see "America Reads Federal Work Study Training Video" by the National Service Coalition, 1997), conferences were presented via satellite, and Web sites were recommended in "America Reads Challenge updates," distributed via the America Reads listserv by the federal government (see Appendix A). Materials such as the *Read*Write*Now! Tutoring Manual* (Venezky, 1995), *The America Reads Challenge: Read*Write*Now! Activities for Reading and Writing* (Kameenui, 1996), and the *Ready*Set*Read* Kit (Koralek, 1997) were published and promoted by the Department of Education and the implicit expectations of the program became more readily visable. Promotion of "model" programs, such as "Houston Reads to Lead" in Houston, Texas, and the Miami Dade Community College in Florida, also contributed to a normalized view of what America Reads should do and look like.

Centralization

In this context, centralization refers to the movement of power away from local and community entities to central agents of control. There is no doubt that the U.S. government has taken on a different, more visionary role with the America Reads program. Not only is there evidence of the federal government's centrality in defining and "normalizing" the America Reads program, but the government was also central in making the decisions about how much funding would be spent and where that funding would go (that is, to tutors rather than

schools). For example, the tutoring component of the initiative was funded primarily through federal work-study dollars paid to universities. Typically, the federal government pays 75% of a federal work-study student's salary, with the employer supplying the remaining 25% of the student's earnings. This additional 25% is called a "matching fund requirement" (America Reads Challenge Legislation, 1997). In the case of America Reads, however, the federal government waived the matching fund requirement and promised to pay the entire wages for students who worked as tutors. This meant that the employment of America Reads tutors would cost the university essentially nothing compared to other work-study programs that would require the university to pay part of the students' wages.

However, there is some measure of deceit embedded in this centralization. Although the federal government envisioned the program and made some initial decisions about how it would play out, the bulk of the day-to-day operations and the source of funding for those operations was left to the local schools, teachers, and students. In a sense, America Reads exemplifies a form of a "global auction." Brown and Lauder (1997) explain,

> As capital becomes footloose, the mass production of standardized goods and services has become located in countries, regions, or communities which offer low wage costs, light labour-market legislation, weak trade unions, and "sweeteners" including "tax holidays" and cheap rent. (p. 173)

An interesting aspect of this particular program, particularly the work-study component, is that the U.S. government decided to channel funding into universities rather than schools. Like a global auction, the federal government, as it works toward the standardized "human capital" of universal literacy, invested in a low-wage community. University students are less expensive and not as organized (in the sense of unionization) as trained teachers and reading specialists. The federal government made clear decisions about who to invest in, as well as who they expected to assume the responsibility of operating the program.

Centralization seems to occur subtly. Dale (1997) suggests that governance involves three separate and distinct activities, although he warns that it is not necessary for the state to carry out all three roles in order to remain in overall control of education. In particular, Dale pro-

poses that issues of funding, provision of programs, and regulation need to be considered in order to sort out the role the federal government has assumed. These three points will be considered in more detail.

FUNDING. Funding for America Reads is provided to one of the following organizations: colleges and universities with federal work-study students, the Corporation for National Service (which supports AmeriCorps, Learn and Serve America, and the Senior Corps), or programs with "demonstrated records of working with parents in improving the reading skills of their young children" or are modeled after a program that has been "demonstrated to be effective" (U.S. Department of Education, 1997).

Ultimately the U.S. Department of Education and the Corporation for National Service decided who would receive the funding and how much they would get, as both of these entities provided national grants for America Reads. Additionally, built into the funding structure was the expectation of collaboration between the federal and state governments. The state grant program allowed state educational agencies and the State Commission on National and Community Service to jointly apply for America Reads funds and then distribute those funds on a competitive basis to local consortia (Riley & Wofford, 1997).

PROVISION OF PROGRAMS. With America Reads, there is evidence of the government providing a new vision for federal policy in schools. Although the federal government has no direct control in matters of public education, in the past it has most typically exerted control through influence (Spring, 1998). However, this more formal policy could be interpreted as a signal for change that is to come concerning the role the federal government hopes to play in education.

REGULATION. Regulation of America Reads was maintained primarily through extensive biopower as described earlier, in spite of suggestions that there was local control. Although Carol Rasco described America Reads as a "grass roots" effort (Rasco, 1997), the program was created by federal policy advisors on a train to Chicago. Obviously the federal government valued and sought to gain a central visionary role in education with the America Reads Challenge. This is supported by evidence that the government provided the framework, controlled the issues of funding, and then attempted to *normalize* the program while it appeared to give control to those working locally.

Marketization

Marketization, as used here, refers to the packaging and selling of education, subjecting educational issues to the supply and demand nature of the marketplace. Carol Rasco encouraged her colleagues at the Department of Education to "market literacy" (Rasco, 1997, September 16), and this market-oriented view is built into the foundation assumptions of America Reads. By the beginning of the second year, marketing ploys for America Reads included using a dog character from a popular television series, as well as advertising through a chain of convenience stores. America Reads seems well on its way to being commercialized in America's mainstream.

Halsey, Lauder, Brown, and Wells (1997) describe three characteristics of the marketization of education relevant to this discussion: the "devolution of financial, staffing, and policy issues to individual educational institutions"; the "assumption that schools can compete successfully regardless of intake"; and the notion that parental choice is "unproblematic" (p. 21). A closer look at these specific points will show how the marketization of education is a hidden value of the America Reads program.

The first point, that the introduction of market competition will deploy financial, staffing, and policy issues to individual educational institutions, is evident when one considers the expectations for program implementation that were delegated to the universities and other organizations taking on the America Reads Challenge. With the university component, the federal government funded only the salaries for the federal work-study students, expecting educational institutions to supply the remainder of the funds needed to support the initiative. Additional budgetary costs, including the salary of program coordinators and staff, overhead costs (including advertising, paperwork, and institutional space, among others), and travel expenses needed to be provided by the respective schools that supported the program.

If we consider primarily the university tutoring aspect of the America Reads program, we can see some of the challenges that the funding structure potentially created. Even a large state university such as Penn State experienced challenges in funding the costs of the program, such as knowing which budgets could be used and how much they were willing to spend (J. Cahir, 1997, personal communi-

cation). These financial issues limited the extent to which Penn State America Reads tutors were able to reach out to the more rural areas surrounding the university (P. Carman, 1997, personal communication). Based on communications posted to the national listserv for America Reads, this issue was not limited to this one university.

Further, the staffing of the America Reads project was left to individual universities as well. At Penn State, the Center for the Study of Adult Literacy was able to provide staff for the program because it had reached the end of a funded project and was searching for something new to take on (P. Carman, personal communication, 1997). Based on postings to the America Reads listserv, other universities decided to add America Reads to the responsibilities of professors, graduate teaching assistants, and federal work-study personnel. There was no uniform or easy way to facilitate the staffing needed for the program.

The second aspect of marketization evident in America Reads is the belief that schools can compete successfully regardless of "intake" (Halsey, Lauder, Brown, & Wells, 1997, p. 21). This means there is an underlying assumption that all students begin their education, either in terms of resources or abilities, at the same starting point, and all that schools need in order to improve are high standards and quality teaching. Little or no consideration is given to the demographics of schools, including the socioeconomic status of the students, the special needs population, or the economic situation that may limit its resources. This is not to say that there are not many students or schools who achieve a great deal in spite of seemingly insurmountable odds. However, this point should still raise serious questions about why the authors of America Reads assumed that volunteer tutors would be sufficient to solve the "reading crisis," in spite of the make-up or needs of any given school. Schools throughout the United States do not have equal situations (Kozol, 1991); therefore, it cannot be assumed that all schools and teachers need the same solution, nor should it be assumed that schools and teachers can or should compete in order for children to learn. This is not to say that students with low socioeconomic backgrounds should not be expected to achieve high literacy levels. However, it should raise questions about the ability of volunteer tutors, as opposed to trained teachers, to accomplish this challenge. Topping (1998) makes this point succinctly:

> It can be argued that in most of the high-poverty schools that America Reads seeks to target, using parents and school peers as tutors might not be a viable option, as literacy levels are so low and parent involvement so limited. (p. 47)

Implicit in the America Reads program is the assumption that teaching a child to read should be easy to do. In fact, it conveys to the public that anyone should be able to teach a child to read without any specialized training. As the original legislation was compromised during the legislative process near the end of the first year, there was more evidence that "quality teaching" had become a priority. Teacher training was written into the bill, but it was not a conceptualization that was evident in the original policy proposal.

Embedded in the America Reads program is the assumption that all parents bring the same resources to bear on the decisions they make regarding their children's education. It was clearly an expectation of the America Reads program that tutors would work in the community in places such as libraries and bookstores, and at community events. It seems from this that the program was targeted to meet the needs of mainstream, middle-class families that would have access to and participate in these activities. Parents with different resources or values, such as those described in Carol Rasco's explanation of the different families and values she perceives throughout the country, may not choose to attend such events. This should raise questions about who the program was initially intended to target. Rasco clearly expected that some parents were not capable of reading to their children for reasons that varied from work responsibilities to drug use. Consequently, it seems unlikely that she would expect these same parents to be able to take their children to events where America Reads tutors would be engaging children in literacy activities.

Personal Interests

Many arguments have been proposed about how and why politicians elect particular topics for their agendas, most of which reflect a mixture of a political agenda and self interest (Reich, 1988a). Stone (1997) explains,

> Politicians always have at least two goals. First there is a policy goal—whatever program or proposal they would like to see accomplished or

> defeated, whatever problem they would like to see solved. Perhaps even more important though, is the political goal. Politicians always want to preserve their power, or gain enough power, to be able to accomplish their policy goals. (p. 2)

Self interest alone does not justify the motivations for promoting particular programs. In fact, Orren (1988) suggests that a "mixture of values and solidarity is the richest source of political value" (p. 27). Solidarity contributes to the creation of an "official spirit ideal," or ideas about what is good for society (Reich, 1988a, p. 41). Both politicians and the media contribute to the image of an ideal society (Linsky, 1988). A multiplicity of voices (Bakhtin, 1981) surfaces throughout the negotiations of policy that make us aware of the various discourses that influence the values of policy makers, some of which are discussed here.

The Clinton administration made decisions about what the problem was that prompted the America Reads initiative, how the problem would be defined, and who and what would be employed to solve it. These decisions reflect the dominant ideological values of the individuals who were involved in crafting the policy. As Carol Rasco, who was on the domestic policy council at the time of the drafting of America Reads explained,

> Laura Tyson [a member of the Economic Policy Council at the time, who specializes in Eastern European economics] and I were heading up that process of looking at what were we [sic] going to target for the State of the Union in [Clinton's] next term, and needless to say he was going to then announce those initiatives during the campaign. As we looked at the education piece, and particularly early childhood and the early elementary years, there were a number of things discussed about what should be considered, what should we propose, and you know there were all kinds of things like did we dare move into what had truly been local control and talk more about kindergarten. We brainstormed all kinds of things and ultimately what we came back to was that we needed to do something to really call attention to some of the very basic things children needed within this context of setting high standards for all children, and we kept coming back to this whole 40% on NAEP that didn't read at a basic level. (personal communication, December 2, 1997)

This explanation reflects how these individuals worked within the larger framework of broad political goals, and how various discours-

es surfaced within the context of their positions as policy makers. They each had personal issues they hoped to address with the program. The broader goals included an emphasis on the official values of efficiency and equity by staying within the "context of setting high standards for all children." But the personal interests ranged from Keats Falling of the economic council who was interested in the piece because his mother is a reading teacher in Michigan (C. Rasco, personal communication, December 2, 1997) to Rasco herself who had special interests due to her background as a school teacher and as a parent of a special needs child (C. Rasco, personal communication, December 2, 1997). These varied interests influenced the new policy as specific decisions were made about the form it would take.

What Was Not Valued

The hidden values of the America Reads program also point to some issues that clearly were not valued by the authors of the legislation. It was not a priority to spend money directly on children, schools, or reading instruction in schools. And although there would be no America Reads without the children, it is interesting that the money was spent on them only indirectly through a tutor who may or may not actually help the child. It also was not a value to spend money on books for children or libraries. Instead, money was allocated to universities and university tutors, family literacy programs, and to AmeriCorps services. Other essential funding for the program, including the salaries of program coordinators at universities, needed to be supplied by local entities. This seems to provide further evidence of what Giroux (1999) has called a "dismantling of state support" (p. 3), or a shift in government policy away from social investments for public schools and children.

While some may argue that America Reads was a social investment in children, there was no guarantee that all children would have access to tutors or that the tutors would successfully ameliorate the perceived literacy crisis. Except for the institutions that were located in an inner city or very rural location, many of the federal work-study tutors could access only the children in close proximity to a university due to the lack of transportation. At Penn State, for example, hundreds of tutors flooded the community surrounding the university

throughout the first year of the program, although only eight tutors were able to reach the most rural, and some would say the most needy, schools (J. Cahir, personal communication, 1997; Carman, personal communication, 1997). Instead the majority of Penn State tutors served a district and community which has been noted for receiving some of the top scores in the state of Pennsylvania in standardized tests of reading (Manns, 1998). Exclusion, rather than inclusion, is emphasized as more significance is placed on perpetuating the middle-class values and lifestyles that were built into the program.

Finally, adequate training for the tutors, an early goal of the program, was not valued. In practice, universities were limited to less than 20 hours and academic credit could not be given for extensive training (McCullough, 1997). The task of how to best train tutors with these restrictions was left to the coordinators at their respective sites.

Sovereign Power and the Enactment of Official and Hidden Values

The values, both official and hidden, embedded in the America Reads program "draw our attention to the centrality of power and control in the concept of policy" (Prunty, 1985, p. 136). The federal government clearly used sovereign power to initiate America Reads when its visionary role in the literacy crisis failed. In other words, in spite of its efforts to change public education, in this case literacy education, through initiatives and reports such as "A Nation at Risk," on the "1994 Report Card on American Education," test scores were still not indicating to government officials that American school children were reading well enough (see Riley, 1996). The government promoted literacy as in the best interests of the nation, indeed as a universal and nonpolitical need for U.S. society. Backed by the media (including news coverage, videotapes, and Web sites), the federal government was able to put into place the mechanisms that would promote their image of an ideal neoliberal society. Heymann (1988) wrote that "one of the great battlefields of government action itself...is the mind of its citizens" (p. 84); and certainly it appears that the federal government attempted to promote the idea of human capital as a means of forwarding a neoliberal agenda that would shape

schools through ideological hegemonic influences. These influences included use of the media to promote reading, and the use of prominent figures to promote reading (such as popular sports figures or popular television characters), among other efforts. When hegemonic means didn't seem effective or provide the needed changes quickly enough, sovereign power was employed and decisions were made regarding centralizing these efforts through legislation. Clegg (1989) wrote, "It is only at times of crisis, when control through the hegemonic structures fails, that power is exercised directly in order to restore control" (p. 160). So when all else failed, (reports, use of media, etc.) the federal government took a direct role, shaped by its neoliberal values, and introduced America Reads as the solution.

The federal government's efforts to resolve "literacy crisis," including the public statements by Secretary of Education Riley and movements toward voluntary testing and national standards which had been a theme of Clinton's early time as president, did not create the expected change in U.S. schools. As the language of crisis became more prevalent, the use of sovereign power became more viable.

Conclusion to Part One: The Contradictions in Values

When the official and hidden values of the federal conceptualization of America Reads are juxtaposed, contradictions and tensions between the two sets of values appear (see Table 3). Although the official value of efficiency claims to promote high standards and achievement for all, it stands in contrast to the hidden value of normalization points to the loss of diversity and individual differences, raising questions concerning those who might be excluded and not benefit from standards and testing. The value of equity implies justice and fairness for all; yet this differs markedly from centralization, which keeps the control and decision making confined to an elite few. The value of economy seeks to raise and maintain the standard of living for all U.S. citizens, while marketization serves only a select few who have resources. Community, as a value, connotes something that would be in the best interest of a large group of people; yet, personal interests clearly played a role in the development of the policy.

Table 3
Federal Values Evidenced in America Reads

Official values	Efficiency	Equity	Economy	Community
Hidden values	Normalization	Centralization	Marketization	Personal interests

In spite of the federal government's attempt to use sovereign power to set this particular program in place, it is not evident how these contradictions and tensions became resolved, or not, as the program was implemented. Did "populism," the idea that policy is developed in the best interest of the people whereby concealing and consolidating issues of power (Popkewitz, 1998), play some role in local programs? Or were there other factors? What new values influenced the program as people other than the authors sought to implement it? These questions can be considered through a critical examination of one case of the America Reads program, which is presented in Part Two.

Part Two
A Critical Case Study

CHAPTER 4

Institutional Commitment: The Story of America Reads at Penn State

I find there is nothing quite like a university campus early in the fall semester when everyone is fresh from summer break and ready to begin a new year. The youthfulness and idealism seem almost contagious. I was reminded of this on August 28, 1997, as I attended the orientation session for the America Reads program that was just formally getting underway at Penn State's main campus in University Park, Pennsylvania.

On this particular evening, the air was humming with the conversations of the more than 100 students who had already gathered, hoping to learn more about their opportunity to join the "army of a million" and become reading tutors for young children. As I sat down near the front of the room, I read the large screen that was pulled over the black board. An overhead projector showed the following words:

> The more you read, the more you know. The more you know, the smarter you grow. The smarter you grow, the longer you stay in school. The longer you stay in school, the more money you earn. The more money you earn, the better your children will do in school, and the longer you will live. So if you hook a child with reading, you influence not only his future health and financial circumstances, but also those of the next generation! On the other hand, the less you read, the less you know. The less you know, the sooner you drop out of school. The sooner you drop out the more likely you are to be poor, and the greater your chances of going to jail. Eighty-two percent of prison inmates are school dropouts. Make a difference, read to a child.

In front of the screen, next to a table piled high with packets of information, stood Priscilla Carman. As I pulled out my clipboard to write down the quote, she smiled and greeted me. I was incredulous at how calm she was, given the daunting task she was undertaking. Carman, who was a literacy specialist at the Center for the Study of Adult Literacy at Penn State, had just spent the entire summer preparing for this moment. This was her first formal event as the America Reads coordinator for Penn State, a university which would place more than 400 tutors in elementary schools, day-care centers, community centers, and libraries. We met just a few months earlier in May 1997, when I approached her for permission to follow the program throughout its first year. She was always willing to share her experiences and concerns about America Reads with me. We conversed through e-mail, by telephone, and in person countless times during the year, and she faithfully kept me informed of the special events throughout the community where the tutors would be reading to children. Her forthrightness and honesty about her work made her an invaluable asset to this study.

Carman worked tirelessly throughout that year, trying to coordinate tutor schedules with school schedules, and attempting to make sense of the federal requirements of the program, hoping to make a difference for children in the way that her quote projected at the orientation meeting suggested.

Why Penn State?

Penn State is a large, land-grant university. Its main campus, University Park, is geographically situated at the center of the state of Pennsylvania. This campus enrolled 40,471 students in the fall of 1997. The remaining 38,485 students of Penn State's 78,956 member enrollment were distributed among the 21 other campus locations, the College of Medicine in Hershey, Pennsylvania, and the Dickinson Law School in Carlisle, Pennsylvania. Penn State is governed by a 32-member Board of Trustees, which selects and appoints a university president and determines the broadest goals and policies of Penn State. There is also a faculty senate of 243 members representing all the campuses with jurisdiction over issues such as instruction, research, and continuing education programs.

President Clinton has personal ties to Penn State. His late father-in-law, Hugh Rodham, was a graduate of the College of Education at the university. After his death, then-university president Joab Thomas established a scholarship in memory of Hugh Rodham, followed by a trip to Washington, D.C., to present a university chair to Mrs. Clinton in a ceremony honoring her father and the scholarship. The Clintons regularly contribute to the Hugh Rodham scholarship fund, and when President Clinton spoke at a commencement ceremony at Penn State on December 15, 1996, he met student recipients of the scholarship. Both Rodney Reed, Dean of the College of Education at Penn State during the first year of the program, and John Cahir, Vice Provost and Dean for Undergraduate Affairs, attributed the president's personal connection to Penn State as the primary reason the university was asked to join the "honor roll." This list, which contained the names of the first 20 universities to enlist their federal work-study students in the America Reads Challenge, was made public during Clinton's 1997 State of the Union Address. When University President Graham Spanier announced that Penn State would be involved with the program, he pledged half of the new federal work-study funds for Penn State to the America Reads initiative (nearly $450,000). He then asked John Cahir "to take the leadership on it and try to get it going" as the "nominal head" (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997).

When it was made public that Penn State was going to sponsor America Reads, John Cahir sent out word to people he thought might be interested in the program. Dr. Eunice Askov, who was the Director of the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy at Penn State as well as Professor and Department Head in Adult Education, Workforce Systems, and Instructional Design, volunteered her help. The Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy had just completed an 8-year literacy corps project, and it needed a new project. Askov put Cahir in touch with Dr. Sheila Sherow, a program coordinator for the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy, and Priscilla Carman, one of her "literacy specialists." It was Carman who became the coordinator of the America Reads program at Penn State, with Dr. Sherow serving in an advisory role. (See Table 4 for a list of key participants in the program at Penn State.)

In addition to the administrators who were involved with America Reads at Penn State, there were also federal work-study officers

Table 4
Key Players in America Reads at Penn State

Player	Responsibility
Graham Spanier	*Penn State President. Agreed to commit* Penn State federal work-study students to the America Reads Challenge when approached by members of the U.S. Department of Education in the fall of 1996.
John Cahir	Vice Provost and Dean for Undergraduate Affairs. Agreed to serve as nominal head of America Reads at Penn State. He asked for support from Dr. Eunice Askov and the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy.
Rodney Reed	Dean of the College of Education at Penn State.
Eunice Askov	Director of the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy; Professor and Department Head for Adult Education, Workforce Systems, and Instructional Design; member of the Faculty Senate with John Cahir and others; she volunteered the resources of the Center as a place to "house" the America Reads program. Nominated Dr. Sheila Sherow and Priscilla Carman to head the program.
Sheila Sherow	Program coordinator for the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy. Resource for Priscilla Carman.
Priscilla Carman	Literacy specialist at Penn State's Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy. Named as program coordinator for America Reads. Oversaw and implemented the daily operations of the program, including making placements, coordinating events, offering training, raising resources, and numerous other responsibilities.

from the Office of Student Aid who put much effort into the program. These individuals were responsible for coordinating the payment and general scheduling of the student tutors, including ensuring that the students were working the correct number of hours per week. As students exhausted their federal work-study fund allocations, the Office of Student Aid notified them and advised them to leave their sites (although the tutors could stay on as unpaid volunteers).

As the America Reads policy crystallized at this particular university site, it made its way from the university administration, to Carman as the coordinator, and finally to the tutors. Because the administrators were the first to come in contact with the program, we will begin with their involvement.

Administrative Values

I gained insight into the administration's goals for America Reads at Penn State when I talked with John Cahir in the fall of the first year of the program. As we sat in his office, he shared with me clippings from the local newspaper that contained stories of a few of the tutors at some local schools, as well as some data sheets with statistics related to the number of tutors working through Penn State and counts of children they were projected to reach. As we talked, he shared with me the administration's goals for the program:

> I think we set out to have the biggest and the best program.... We're a unique university and we have 24 locations. And so to be able to reach out and do something statewide at many, many locations, including some where the need to help children with their reading skills is very, very, very great—we believe, or Penn State believes, that we can do more than probably most, or probably any other university. (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997)

Penn State's administration did not subscribe to neoliberal business practices of small size and flexibility (Marshall & Tucker, 1992; Reich, 1988a). The goal of developing a program that was the "biggest and the best" was not unlike Penn State's approach to other endeavors. Penn State seemed to run its "business" of higher education based on economies of scale, which means that high-volume, standardized production is desirable (Reich, 1988b). The fact that the university would

hope to produce large numbers of tutors throughout the state of Pennsylvania seemed predictable.

Further evidence of the university's emphasis on size could be seen during President Spanier's tenure. During this time, the university experienced unprecedented growth through building construction, expansion of branch campuses, mergers with a medical center and law school, and distance education programs. This expansion was met with criticism, particularly by smaller state universities in Pennsylvania (Chronicle of Higher Education, September 18, 1998). In the 1998 State of the University Address, President Spanier reported that "one in every two households in Pennsylvania has a person participating in Penn State programs" (Spanier, 1998, September 11). This same goal for size is evident in the America Reads program, which was conceived as a university-wide (therefore, statewide) program, not just a program for the University Park campus.

The Matter of Prestige

Part of the desire to be the biggest program may be connected to a goal of positive, public recognition, or prestige. Prestige, as it is used here, reflects attention given to the university for its good deeds or perceived philanthropy that would make Penn State appear to be better or more noble than its competitors. There was certainly much potential for prestige at the onset of the America Reads program, particularly as Clinton mentioned the "honor roll" in his State of the Union address. Furthermore, given the climate of "crisis" in literacy education, engaging in a literacy initiative had potential for sustained prestige for the university.

Interestingly, this potential for prestige was never fully realized. Penn State never received the attention it had expected, particularly from the U.S. Department of Education. At one point in our conversation, Cahir said,

> The reason I'm somewhat, you would say, impatient with Carol Rasco [is] when they don't seem to be aware of what Penn State is doing. That maybe is our fault. But when they're talking about what others are doing, they're talking about programs that are considerably smaller than ours. (personal communication, November 18, 1997)

Cahir, who felt that Penn State had the "leading program in the country" (personal communication, November 18, 1997), also seemed to resent the attention that was given to other universities involved in America Reads, such as the University of Pennsylvania.

> I shouldn't go into much of this, but some descriptions call Penn one of the leading programs. Well, right in the state of Pennsylvania we've got a program that's far more advanced than Penn is. (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997)

Cahir was not the only one at Penn State who valued prestige. Penn State's College of Education worked to ensure that America Reads would be operated from one of its departments. In a conversation with Rodney Reed, who was at the time, Dean of the College of Education at Penn State he explained,

> Sometimes the College of Education is by-passed when education-related initiatives surface. And we clearly have expertise in the college to really address a number of projects and issues that the campus has embraced, but we have not been looked to for the leadership. And so this was an additional opportunity to exert some leadership in an area that was of national importance, and I thought would become important within the campus community. However, having said that, I haven't seen very much in the way of publicity that would send a signal to me that the campus at large has really embraced this as a real service endeavor that would help to solidify its service mission within the commonwealth.... I have not seen anything—any kind of report about the number of students involved, where they come from, how other units are engaged, whether or not the university at large takes any pride in this program, places any significance on it or anything else. But it's hard to do at a university as large and complex as this with so many competing interests. (personal communication, January 12, 1998)

The positive public recognition that Penn State and the College of Education's administration expected seemed wedded to their belief that America Reads would be a popular program. Cahir relayed to me that no one had turned them down when asked to work on the America Reads project. In fact, he felt that many people volunteered and extended their services with little compensation because it was a good program:

> This is such a popular program. I mean, I haven't heard of anybody who doesn't like it. Whenever we asked for anybody, especially in the early stages, when we were trying to get this thing organized, Stan Austin and Lisa Hoffman in this office helped me a great deal. I mean, they're extremely busy people, but they were so excited about being able to contribute to it. (personal communication, November 18, 1997) (names have been changed)

The perception that America Reads would potentially be very popular, tied to the university's desire for prestige, indicates a major rationale for the university committing to the program. The other primary value, which is closely tied to prestige, is the administration's value of economic capital.

Economic Capital

The nearly $450,000 of federal work-study funding that was secured by taking on the program was no small matter to the administration. This extra work-study funding was used to pay the salaries of the America Reads tutors. Additionally, having more work study options for students was a benefit to Penn State. Students could choose whether to participate in America Reads, and if they did so, the university was not responsible for a portion of their salary as they would be with other federal work study assignments.

As universities become more corporate-like in their management and endeavors (see Aronowitz, 1998), it becomes increasingly important for them to compete and advertise for "clientele." America Reads, a well-publicized program, provided the university with the potential to bring in new students at no added cost to the university, building a form of economic capital (Bourdieu, 1997).

Penn State enrolled 7,895 work-study students for the 1997–1998 academic year. Federal work-study eligibility is determined for students who meet the government's criteria for financial need, enrollment status, academic progress, and U.S. citizenship. Based on the determination of financial need, students are allocated a particular dollar amount that can be earned for an academic year. For example, students may be told they are eligible for $1,200 in federal work-study funding. An America Reads tutor who was paid $6 per hour, the typi-

cal rate at that time for an undergraduate student (graduate students were paid $7 per hour), could work 200 hours over the academic year. Once their funding was depleted, they were no longer eligible to work. Positions were made available for both undergraduate and graduate students as America Reads tutors, either on or off campus.

An unanticipated problem Penn State faced after committing to the program was that no additional funds were available for overhead costs to operate the program. As explained earlier, the federal government only provided the student salaries. Cahir explained,

> You can't run a 400,000 dollar program with no overhead at all. What we're trying to do is to keep [overhead costs] as low as possible. (personal communication, November 18, 1997)

This lack of funding for overhead costs affected the staffing (only one coordinator could be hired), as well as the outreach of the program. At one level, the virtually non-existent budget limited the extent to which Priscilla Carman could travel to the branch campuses to monitor each program's progress. Much of the extended communication with other campuses took place through e-mail and phone calls (J. Cahir, personal communication, November 18, 1997; P. Carman, personal communication, December 10, 1997).

The lack of funding for travel also affected the breadth of the program in the community surrounding Penn State. Initially, there was no funding for travel with university vehicles, nor was there money to reimburse individuals who used their own vehicles. Therefore, tutors were limited to serving the community in the immediate vicinity surrounding the campus. This was a matter of grave concern to Carman, and she worked diligently to place eight tutors in two outlying districts by the spring semester. Eight months into the program, two university cars were available to send eight tutors into some of the outlying areas and schools. However, because the students were paid for their travel time, this directly affected the amount of time they were reading with the children in the schools.

Overlooked Values

The administration at Penn State raised other issues that had the potential to become values of the program, but never came to fruition.

They seemed instead to fall by the wayside as matters of prestige and economic capital took precedence. These potential, but unrealized, values included research and ensuring that children learn to read.

John Cahir expressed an interest in conducting research to measure Penn State's impact through America Reads. Based on the size of the program, he believed that Penn State could provide a unique study, but the lack of funding prevented him from pursuing any large-scale assessment. His assessment, from a functionalist stance, would determine how the program was working at the various sites, and if it was really improving children's reading scores. He explained,

> One of my goals would be to have an assessment of our impact.... We haven't had any funding for that.... I don't believe there have been many experiments, now I may be wrong about this, on a scale this large where a particular cohort of children has been identified with one specific goal. I mean, they're supposed to take their reading tests in the fourth grade, and we're supposed to get them improving nationally out of the America Reads Challenge.... While I have every confidence that it will work, I think it will be important for us to measure this as carefully as we can and learn as much as we can.... An opportunity on this scale, to obtain good data on it, doesn't present itself very often. (personal communication, November 18, 1997)

Yet, it seems the Penn State administration did not value researching the program enough to find the necessary funding for it. In spite of believing that the program was good and worthy, it was funded only minimally with Penn State money. Cahir admitted,

> We've tried very hard to avoid spending any cash, Penn State cash. But maybe if you traced it closely enough, we maybe have a few cases. But we've certainly made a substantial contribution in time, a lot of people's time. And of course we have had to fund Priscilla's time. She's full time (40 hours per week). (personal communication, November 18, 1997)

The administration seemed to feel there was a need to help children learn to read well. Both Cahir and Rodney Reed made mention of this issue, supporting their concern with data from the NAEP assessments that were the impetus behind the America Reads program. However, given the fact that the administration offered little funding and had little direct contact with the program, one must question the sincerity of their concern. Reed admitted to "hearing indirectly that

[America Reads] is doing well" (R. Reed, personal communication, January 12, 1998), but there was no system in place for reporting on the program. Likewise, once the program was in the hands of Askov's Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy, Cahir trusted the daily operations primarily to Priscilla Carman.

The Corporate Culture of the University: Some Conclusions

The values of the administration at Penn State like those of many universities are aligned closely with values of many U.S. corporations (see Aronowitz, 1998). Frederick (1995) has identified three core sets of values evidenced in large corporations, which he has labeled as "clusters." These clusters help us to understand the influence of the corporate culture on Penn State, which became a site for the America Reads policy articulation.

The first cluster, "economizing," involves acting prudently in a way that efficiently uses resources. At Penn State, economizing was evident in the administration's early commitment to America Reads, a commitment that the administration anticipated would bring additional funding to the university through the size of the program (which would relate to the number of federal work-study students it could enroll). Economizing was also a factor when Penn State realized, after making its commitment to the program, that it would need to offer economic support by way of the program coordinator's salary and other added expenses. The university attempted to keep these expenses to a minimum.

The second value cluster that Frederick (1995) identified involves the tendency of corporations to "aggrandize" power (p. 57). Corporations work to acquire, accumulate, and retain power. Likewise, Penn State has an established trend of acquiring, accumulating, and retaining power that is clear not only in the America Reads agenda, but also in other policies and actions of the university. (See Chronicle of Higher Education, 1998, Sept. 18). As Penn State continues to value acclaim through its emphasis on becoming the "biggest and the best," there is evidence of this value cluster at work.

The third value cluster relates to "systemic integrity," or the way in which various groups within the corporation mesh and work together.

Frederick (1995) refers to the value of teamwork as a key aspect of this value. At Penn State, America Reads became a team effort as various individuals across campus volunteered their time. John Cahir mentioned the added effort of the "busy" individuals in both his office and the student aid office who contributed extra effort to the program.

These corporate-like values set the parameters for the America Reads program at Penn State. The parameters had areas that were less than clear when it was handed over to the coordinator of the program, Priscilla Carman. The administration did not specify where the tutors should be placed, how they would be trained, or what they would do when they reached their respective sites. These decisions would become the work of the coordinator.

Coordinator Values

Priscilla Carman has a background as a reading specialist, and she worked on government funded programs in adult literacy for a number of years at Penn State before taking on her role as America Reads coordinator. Although she was aware of the values and goals of the administration, she also had her own vision for the program and how it would take shape. In one conversation, she referred to it as her "baby," given the fact that she had put countless hours and so much effort into the program and tutors. She faced the challenges outlined by the administration, with responsibility for over 400 tutors, and working with very little money to cover costs. In the midst of this, she found ways to integrate her values into the program. Based on the data from interviews and field notes that cover the course of Carman's first year as coordinator of America Reads, three key values emerge as central to her work: multiple aspects of literacy, community, and resourcefulness.

MULTIPLE ASPECTS OF LITERACY. During the first year of her work with America Reads, Priscilla Carman continued to place value on multiple aspects and uses of literacy. Her training sessions and work with the tutors extended beyond what may be considered the limited definition of reading that was offered in the materials supported by the federal government (Kameenui, 1996; Venezky, 1995). Carman valued the social and moral aspects involved in literacy, emphasizing them to the tutors. Evidence of this is found in the quote that she shared repeatedly with the tutors:

> You'll be bonding and developing relationships with kids. So many kids are not talked with, but talked to. An important part of tutor's work is talking with kids, and children's books can be a springboard for discussions. Teachers are grateful. If a classroom has 30 kids, there's not a lot of time for one-to-one.

She seemed less concerned with specific skill and strategy instruction, instead valuing how literacy affected the dimension of caring and helping children. She realized that these tutors had the potential to impact children's lives in very real and significant ways. She referred to this as the power of tutors: "Don't underestimate your power as a tutor. Kids will emulate you. You might reach a child that a brother can't" (P. Carman, tutor training session, September 9, 1997).

As mentioned earlier, Priscilla Carman worked to get tutors to outlying areas. She anticipated what they would experience in the more rural parts of Pennsylvania, and she tried to prepare the students for this by explaining that the literacy problems are much more evident in the outlying areas. She felt the Clearfield county in particular, which is approximately a 40-minute drive from the Penn State campus and a site where she later placed four tutors, had real needs because they had "nobody in their schools." Her perception was that parents in that area did not want to be involved, either because they were too busy or because they felt it was the teacher's job to teach the children how to read.

Priscilla Carman's ideas about the causes of illiteracy did not seem to differ significantly from Carol Rasco's notions about why parents may not read to their children. Both seemed to recognize that the economy may not be benefiting all parents (such as those who work more than one job), and both seemed to agree that tutors could make a difference. However, Carman did not have the same expectations for the work tutors would be able to do. While Rasco promoted the specific skill-related elements of tutoring, Carman encouraged tutors to develop relationships and friendships with the children. She also tried to prepare the tutors at Penn State to meet with some resistance in their work:

> The level of understanding in rural areas is not connected with universities and higher education. They may be intimidated because they don't have skills themselves. Most adults can read some, but not enough to meet sophisticated demands. (tutor training session, September 9, 1997)

During the time of this study, none of the tutors experienced resistance from the parents. This may be due to the fact that the tutors were largely concentrated in the community surrounding Penn State, in schools and community centers that were accustomed to Penn State students working as volunteers, student teachers, or interns.

As part of the early training session, Priscilla Carman also proposed that reading was better for children than playing with certain toys and watching certain television shows. Just before the training session, she shopped at a local toy store to find the "most disgusting" toys she could to help make this point. She presented these to the tutors: a plastic grenade, a toy knife, and an action figure that hurled weapons and fed on the traumatic memories of others. She asked the tutors if they would rather see children playing and reading with her examples, or playing and reading with good books. Tutors participated in this discussion by adding examples of horrific televisions shows intended for children.

Clearly, Carman believed there was a moral dimension to the work that tutors would do as they entered schools. The tutors could make a difference by helping the children find a quality to life that was not "horrific." In light of this, it would seem that the social and moral aspects of the impact of literacy on society were the motivating factors behind Carman's coordination of the America Reads program at Penn State. She told the tutors during their training that "there is a direct relationship between educational attainment and poverty and health" (P. Carman, training session, September 9, 1997). She cited the common NAEP statistic by telling the tutors that "40% of our fourth graders scored below basic level on the 1994 NAEP," and that children "need to develop literacy because of the demands of society." As she talked about this issue, she shared the following statistics:

> The amount of time spent watching TV is directly related to reading proficiently. Fourth graders who watched TV for 6 hours or more per day had significantly lower scores, below the basic level on NAEP, than fourth graders who watched 1 hour or less. (P. Carman, September 9, 1997)

Whether or not one agrees with these statistics, it is clear that Carman was considering literacy in a broader context as she tried to prepare the tutors for their work with children. Her rationale for involve-

ment with the program did not exclude the statistics from NAEP that were the cornerstone of the federal presentation of America Reads, but she tended to conceptualize the program in a broader, more liberal (as opposed to neoliberal) way. She did not deny the "reading success equation" (Edmondson & Shannon, 1999, p. 104), but she recognized that literacy affected more than the economic situations of children and their families. In turn, this meant that the tutors would do more than teach children to read. They would be mentors, friends, and confidantes in any number of ways.

In addition to the moral and social aspects of literacy, Priscilla Carman presented multiple aspects of the process of reading. She shared with tutors examples of how to conduct a read aloud with children in ways that would call attention to prediction, monitoring, word analysis, phonics, and activating prior knowledge (tutor training, September 9, 1997). Furthermore, she described how pleasurable reading aloud and re-reading familiar texts could be for students, and she tried to introduce the tutors to a number of children's books during the training session, in spite of the limitations of time. She even shared one of her personal favorites with the tutors, Kevin Henkes' book *Julius, the Baby of the World*. Throughout the year, she emphasized the use of puppets to bring stories alive, and some tutors even received extra training so they could use life-size puppets of children with special needs.

COMMUNITY. In addition to presenting multiple aspects of literacy, Priscilla Carman also forwarded a view of teaching that extended beyond tutor-child relationships. "Community" indicates her desire to provide both herself and the tutors with adequate training and time for reflective teaching, communication, and support. This value of community is different from a neoliberal community in the sense that it is conceptualized as a support network more than a "shared citizenship" (Fowler, 1995).

One way that Carman attempted to establish community was by receiving feedback from tutors about how things were going for them. In spite of the constraints of working with such a large number of tutors, she tried to receive responses from the tutors regarding the training they received. The amount of time allotted for training was limited by federal regulations. Carman recognized that these limitations could have a direct impact on the quality of the program. Six months

into the program, Carman wrote a survey and sent it to all the University Park tutors to ascertain how her training had helped them begin their work in schools (see Table 5). She said that she had learned from this survey that many of the tutors felt inadequately prepared (P. Carman, personal communication, December 10, 1997), and she worked to arrange extra training for the tutors who were in challenging situations. On November 12, 1997 she had an English as a second language teacher from a local elementary school provide training for tutors who were working with students who had limited English proficiency. Tutors were paid for attending these training sessions from their work-study allotments. There was additional training for the four tutors who were able to work in the Clearfield area, offered in December 1997 by the reading specialists in that district who wanted the tutors to use elements of the Reading Recovery program (Clay, 1993).

Table 5
Penn State America Reads Student Survey

1. List three things you like best and three things you liked least about tutoring.
2. Did the initial tutor training session prepare you for your tutoring work?
3. Did your work have a visible impact on the children; i.e. did you notice changes in their reading skills, attitudes, or behaviors?
4. List three things you have learned about yourself through this experience.
5. List three things you have learned about working with children through this experience.
6. Describe what you learned about reading through this experience.
7. Did your America Reads experience enhance your college education or change your career plans?
8. Please describe a memorable moment you had as an America Reads tutor.

In addition to providing extra training for tutors, Carman attempted to set up a "resource development group." This group, consisting of four or five University Park tutors who volunteered to help (and were paid for their time out of their work-study funding), planned to meet monthly and develop a set of activities and puppets that would be based on a specific children's book. Early in the program, Carman and the four or five tutors developed a set of activities to accompany Eric Carle's *The Very Hungry Caterpillar*. The activities included having the children cut colored paper in the shape of a butterfly that would be turned into a ring; placing cloth butterfly wings on the backs of the children so they could role-play curling into a cocoon and then turning into butterflies; sharing "gummy worms" with the children as a snack; and sharing actual cocoons and a butterfly collection from the Penn State Entomology Department. These activities were used repeatedly at bookstores and community events, and Carman hoped to provide more activities that would be similar. Throughout the year, small groups of tutors (between 6 to 10) worked to develop activities for Leo Lioni's book *A Color of His Own* and puppets for the story *Meg's Eggs* (P. Carman, personal communication, October 29, 1997, February 27, 1998).

In addition to receiving feedback on her own teaching, and making needed changes, Priscilla Carman also encouraged the tutors to engage in reflective practice. At various times throughout the year, she encouraged tutors to respond to questions posted on an America Reads listserv established for Penn State. The listserv was initially an attempt to establish and maintain contact among the tutors. It had about 65 tutors signed on by November 21, 1997, with occasional postings from branch campuses. Carman explained that the purpose of setting it up was for tutors to "share their experiences and look for resources, ideas, information, materials, etc." (Carman, personal communication, November 21, 1997). She asked them to recount descriptions of their work (P. Carman, personal communication, January 28, 1998) and some of their challenging and rewarding experiences with children. Some are included here to illustrate the use of the listserv for reflection. These postings to the listserv were selected because of their "maximum variation" (Erlandson, Skipper, Harris, & Allen, 1993). This means that these postings demonstrate the variety of tutors and their experiences at Penn State. These selections are in no way meant to be representative of the entire group of tutors, nor are they meant

to demean them in any way. Instead, it is interesting to consider diverse individuals who were attracted to this program. One tutor wrote that the most challenging aspect was discussing personal questions with the children at the Montessori school where she worked:

> This one black child asked me why my skin was white and hers was black. Then the discussion went from there. (A. Voss, personal communication, January 28, 1998)

Another student, who was a special education major at Penn State, wrote frankly of his frustrations with his own university training, as well as with the teacher and the politics of the setting where he worked:

> I could write books on my experiences with America Reads, all of which have been so positive! It's really tough to sit through teacher classes when I could actually be working with students.... Last Summer [sic], in a reading maintenance class, we had two students with autism, one of whom had a fascination with (please excuse) his backside, and the other screamed a great deal, ran about, and stuck her fingers in the fan. They were a real education for me. What I really did not appreciate was the way the school district had set up the program, and how a certain teacher insisted on running it. I kept my opinions to myself, because the program had enough problems of its own. Politics can be such a messy thing: I have kept quiet about this until now for that very reason. Just remember that we have learned the skills to work with the students, but sometimes the adults can be the real source of a headache. On the other hand, most parents and teachers treat AR tutors like we're Godsends. (D. Edwards, personal communication, February 11, 1998)

A tutor from a branch campus of Penn State also joined the conversation by noting,

> I experience a challenging situation just about everyday I help at Dickinson Elementary School. Most of the time it is trying to get the kids to do their work while the teacher is out of the room. It takes a while until the kids respect you enough to listen to you. It is pretty sad but it usually gets to the point of having to bribe them with a treat to behave. I don't feel bad though, because even the teacher has to most of the time. (C. Evans, personal communication, February 2, 1998)

Following is another example of the comments students posted to e-mail as a result of Priscilla's prompts for reflection:

> i [sic]almost cry when they call my name and tell me to look at what they can do—swing the farthest, climb the highest, go the longest. makes me smile. i love telling the kids to stop picking their noses cuz they'll bleed, i love asking them if they want any more milk with their lunch. i love that they run and hug me, and ask me to read them stories, and want to sit in my lap, all at the same time. i love it when they give me fives, i love it when they tell me they love me, i love it when they tell me they hate me, i love making valentines for them, building legos with them, lincoln logs, bristle blocks, puzzles, board games.... i love reading to them. (E. Holt, personal communication, February 27, 1998)

Not only do these comments reflect the multiple ways Priscilla Carman anticipated tutors would be involved with children and the multiple aspects of literacy they would encounter, these comments also reflect unanticipated experiences as tutors learn to "be" in engaging classroom spaces. The comments illustrate the values and conflicts the tutors experienced; indeed, they were engaged in more than a narrowly defined conceptualization of reading. Although Carman set a goal for reflective practice as she attempted to get the students to engage in reflective thinking about their work with children, she admitted that the "the listserv has been used more for sharing information than for reflection" (P. Carman, personal communication, November 21, 1997). Thus the listserv, while useful for communicating with the tutors, was less successful for encouraging reflective practice.

In addition to providing an avenue for reflection, the listserv was an attempt to establish and maintain some sense of community among the tutors as well. Because of the size of the program, it was difficult to help tutors get to know one another. Priscilla Carman began her training session and other meetings with introductions of the tutors, but it was difficult to arrange for weekly or monthly meetings. In spite of this, Carman still tried to help tutors know one another.

Priscilla Carman valued community as it encompassed not just the tutors, but also the members of the schools and towns surrounding Penn State. She understood "community" to be a reciprocal relationship in which America Reads gave to the community and the community gave to America Reads. There were instances when the program found support from various donations and fund raisers. However, even more striking was the community's willingness to give time and effort as community members welcomed tutors into libraries and

bookstores and at other community events. Many tutors sought placements in sites that were not schools. This was often attributed to the fact that their class schedule prevented them from working during regular elementary school hours. As a result, some tutors worked during the evenings in local libraries, or they would read aloud to children during story time at any one of the local bookstores. Further, as special events came up, such as the *Central Pennsylvania Festival of the Arts*, tutors would seek extra hours of work by reading at these events. This required some accommodation to be made by the sponsors of these sites and events. As one of many examples, the public library near the campus had a children's librarian who altered her plans for reading groups with children to accommodate America Reads tutors. She also supported tutors who were searching for appropriate texts to read (C. Ebersole, personal communication, June 24, 1997).

The value of community includes a dimension of recognition and rewards for the tutors. This stands in stark contrast to the recognition that the Penn State administration sought. Rather than seeking prestige for the university, Priscilla Carman seemed more interested in recognizing the tutors and reminding them of the rewards they would experience through their efforts with children. During the September training, she told the tutors,

> All of you will experience a reward in bonding with the children at your site. You may not see discernible progress, but rest assured, the work that you are doing will have an impact down the line. (September 9, 1997)

It seems that Carman's past experience with teaching reading, and perhaps an anticipation that these tutors would only be with the children for a few months of the year, led her to conclude that "discernible progress" would be limited. Later during that same session, she said, "I hope I've put in perspective why this is so important. You should feel so proud. The work you're doing is so important. It will all be worthwhile" (September 9, 1997).

Priscilla Carman valued recognizing the students who did the work of America Reads. She wanted them to feel a sense of pride for their efforts—to build morale for the community of tutors. Near the end of the first year of the program, Carman organized a ceremony to congratulate the tutors on the work they had done throughout the year.

RESOURCEFULNESS. This last value reflects the emphasis that Carman placed on establishing and operating an efficient program at Penn State. It involves the more practical aspects of operating such a large program in timely and cost-efficient ways. In a very real sense, Carman learned how to operate the program by doing it. There was no precedent or model to follow, and she often experienced a sense of frustration from what she perceived to be a vagueness and lack of information from the federal government:

> It's made me question my own ability to understand the stuff that comes out of Washington because sometimes I can not make heads or tails of it. And when I do talk to other people I realize that they aren't either. But I keep thinking, well somebody must know. But I'm starting to think that not anybody does. (personal communication, December 10, 1997)

Carman attempted to be more efficient, and to fill in the gaps of the program. She attended government-sponsored training and sought out information about America Reads. She also participated in the early university training held by the federal government at the University of Pennsylvania in July 1997, as well as a rally held for America Reads participants in December 1997 in Washington, D.C.

There is more to the program than merely enlisting a large number of tutors to "make" America Reads. Money is needed to supply materials for the program and the tutors. Carman coordinated efforts to raise extra funds that would provide needed materials she felt would enhance the quality of the tutor's work as well as her communication with them. Because there were no available monies for materials for the tutors to use, Priscilla Carman attempted to raise money to buy children's books and puppets by going into the local community to find support. She arranged for two fundraisers at a local bookstore. Here, tutors read aloud and did art activities with children during two separate Saturday sessions. The bookstore then forwarded a percentage of their sales for those particular days to the America Reads program. None of this type of fund-raising work was anticipated by the federal government or the Penn State administration as they outlined or described the program. Carman clearly valued running an efficient and well-organized program, but other factors worked against her at different times throughout the first year.

The Challenges of America Reads at Penn State: The Coordinator's Perspective

There was no doubt that Priscilla Carman felt the effects of the constraints that were established by the Penn State administration. The federal government put in place parameters that were not necessarily aligned with her own conceptualization of the program. For instance, she talked of wanting to reach a broader age range of children:

> I've met with [the Youth Service Bureau of State College] and we may get some tutors working at some of their outreach sites in Bellefonte (Bellefonte is a small town located approximately 15 miles from the Penn State campus) teen centers or after school homework centers. Not the teen centers because we have to keep with the younger [children], although that's a pet peeve of mine. I would love to get involved with the middle schools. (personal communication, December 2, 1997).

America Reads narrowly reflects the values of the policy's authors, rather than the values of those who understand the needs of the local communities, as Carman does.

Because of limited funding in the policy as it was outlined by the federal government, there were limitations in the amount of outreach into the community that could be accomplished, because of transportation issues, as well as funding for materials, supplies, and other overhead costs. She also expressed concern about the size of the program:

> [The program's] so large and even though in my mind when I heard that we needed about 150 tutors here at University Park, it didn't sound that large to me. Now that I'm actually dealing with it, it seems really large. (personal communication, December 10, 1997)

Carman also directly felt the impact of those large numbers as she struggled to get the program running. One significant consequence of the program's size was that a number of student tutors left the program during its early months, many before they began working:

> Well, it was enormous and I think I lost some people. Well, I know I lost some people. But I just, we had never done it before. We didn't have a system down. We didn't really quite know how to go about doing it all until we actually got in and started doing it. (personal communication, December 10, 1997)

Carman seemed almost envious of the smaller programs she heard about through personal conversations and the national America Reads listserv. For instance, she stated,

> When I talked to the coordinators at the other campuses, one of the things I'm almost envious about is that they have smaller numbers. They have weekly meetings. Patty Jones (name changed) at Lehigh Valley said they hold these weekly get togethers where they laugh and discuss and share ideas and sometimes cry about the things they've seen. And I just think that would be ideal. To have a program that you could really get together. But we can't. As far as I know, we have more tutors working than any other program in the country. (personal communication, December 10, 1997)

Carman's value of community clearly was compromised by the constraints of an administration that placed more value on the size, rather than the quality of the program they put in motion. The Penn State administration failed to consider the coordinator's own values as the program took shape by superimposing its values before consulting the coordinator or the local schools and community centers where the program would be operating. Penn State's administration did not adjust its "business practices" to fit a more neoliberal, flexible model (Marshall & Tucker, 1992; Reich, 1988b). Instead, the administration still valued a business model that believed size was a symbol of success, and relied on middle management to carry out its mission (Reich, 1988b). This resulted in Priscilla Carman serving as a type of middle manager. Carman, in turn, needed to construct a program that included both the administration's requirement of size, and her own values of literacy, community, and training.

However, Carman remained acutely aware of the surveillance of the federal government (Foucault, 1980). Even though no one from the U.S. Department of Education ever visited Penn State to monitor the program, she was still aware of their power to withdraw funding. This was particularly evident when she expressed fear of losing funding or stepping out of the boundaries when tutors were engaged in activities that were inconsistent with the vague tenets of the program. She described her fears when a new day-care site used tutors inappropriately:

> So at first [the day care] had tutors washing the dishes and all these things that, you know, we could lose our federal work-study money if, you know, if [it were known]. It was just a miscommunication and people not understanding the purpose and all of that, but that's been resolved. Different programs make it easier to work with because they know how to use volunteers or people who act as volunteers, and even different individuals. I mean there are some teachers in the school district who are so terrific at making the most out of having these extra hands in the classroom and others who aren't. (personal communication, December 10, 1997)

In spite of Carman's efforts to do what was right with the program, what neither she nor the Penn State administration seemed to anticipate was that tutors would enter the program with their own values and ideas about teaching children to read. The tutors at Penn State had their own conceptualizations of literacy and their own goals and values that influenced the implementation of the program. The next section provides a very general look at a subset of the tutors before they began their work tutoring children through America Reads.

The Tutors

America Reads enlisted the services of 478 federal work-study tutors at all Penn State campuses. These students were enrolled in a variety of majors and had a varied amount of experiences with children, the university, and other work. There were traditional and nontraditional aged students from engineering, education, liberal arts, communications, human development and family studies, and various other disciplines.

Penn State students were notified about the America Reads program when a flier announcing the new work-study opportunity was included with their packet of information from the Student Aid Office at Penn State. Any federal work-study student interested in the America Reads Challenge was offered placement and asked to attend an orientation meeting. Eighty-one students had already been "officially" placed at sites in the community at the time of the orientation. More than 100 more requested placement. Priscilla Carman asked that all those interested attend the meeting, even though she was uncertain of the possibility of placing all of them. Nearly 150 students attended the orientation ses-

sion, and with the exception of students who may have been lost in the placement process (P. Carman, personal communication, December 10, 1997), all were accepted as tutors at the University Park campus

During the fall orientation, information was given to students regarding the America Reads program, their placements, and the paperwork that needed to be processed. At the end of the meeting, Priscilla Carman introduced me to the tutors and proceeded to explain my study. At this early stage, it was unclear whether all students who applied for positions would find placement. I asked the 81 students who had placements secured to stay after the meeting to answer the questions on DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile (TORP) (see Appendix D), and state in writing the reason why they hoped to be a tutor for America Reads. My intent was to learn more about the tutors conceptualizations of reading in a general sense, as well as to get a broader picture of the goals of the tutors. Although this is in no way meant to be indicative of the entire population of America Reads tutors at Penn State, nor is it meant to be conclusive in any way, I found that it did provide an interesting snapshot of those students who were the first America Reads tutors at the university.

Tutor Conceptualizations of Reading: The TORP

The TORP was designed by Diane DeFord as a tool to differentiate preservice and inservice teachers' theoretical views of reading by having the participants respond to statements on a Likert scale that ranged from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5). The total score indicates whether the teacher theoretically holds a phonics approach to reading (0–65), a skills approach to reading (65–110), or a whole language approach to reading (110–140). A phonics approach to reading is based on the assumption that requisite knowledge is needed before a child can learn to read; specifically, it is believed that an emphasis on letter-sound correspondences presented in a sequential manner will result in successful reading (Chall, 1996). A skills approach to reading reflects the assumption that drill and practice of sight words and other reading skills (such as recognition of inflectional endings) will result in a child's successful reading (DeFord, 1985). A whole language approach to reading reflects the philosophy that children learn to read through engagement with authentic, meaningful texts and purposeful activities (Goodman, 1986).

The mean for this particular subset of tutors was 64—a score that falls almost directly between the phonics and skills orientations on DeFord's scale. This score seems to be aligned with the underlying tenets of America Reads, particularly the implied definition of reading and the implications of the best methods to teach reading (Edmondson, 1998).

It seems that the group who completed the TORP were expecting to teach phonics and skills, an agenda that is more aligned with the federal government's expectations of the program than it was with Priscilla Carman, who seemed more concerned with the social aspects of the work the tutors would do.

The TORP is not intended to discredit the tutors in any way, nor should it indicate that they *should* understand the process of reading. There are no "right" or "wrong" answers in this case. Instead, the collection of this particular data was intended to reflect very generally how this particular set of tutors *did* conceptualize reading.

Why Join America Reads?

Thirty-four of the 81 students who completed the TORP responded in writing to the question: Why do you want to be an America Reads tutor? Following is a description of the explanations students gave for wanting to join America Reads. This set of data shows the early ideas and motivations these tutors had as they began the program.

Caring. "Caring" reflects the tutors' sense of wanting to help others who were in need. In particular, students whose responses fell into this category wrote of a general concern about children needing to read well, and of wanting to help these children. These students seemed to want to share their own successes with reading, and they seemed confident that they could make a difference. One student wrote,

> I consider myself a well-read individual and would like to share the knowledge of reading with others.

Often the comments reflected a commitment to society as well. There was an obligation to making the United States a better place, one without the problems of illiteracy. One student wrote,

> I am interested in this program. I think that reading skills are lacking in the youth of our country and I want to help change this.

There also seemed to be a pervasive sense that reading would lead to success for children. This is reflected in responses such as the following:

> I want to help kids because I know if you can't read, you can't win in life.

Caring and self interest. This group of responses had some mixture of wanting to give to those who are needy, combined with personal reasons for wanting to tutor. These personal reasons ranged from students who were hoping to build their resumes with child-related experiences to those who stated that they needed to earn money. One student wrote,

> I am doing this because I need work-study, and if I am going to be working I want to do something useful. I feel this is a good way not only to help the kids but to help us.

Some students were specifically looking for experiences related to teaching. This is seen in comments such as the following:

> I am anxious to work with children, share my love of reading, and gain valuable experiences towards my major, which is teaching.

The sense of making a difference and helping children to have a better life remained a theme throughout this set of rationales:

> I believe that education is a crucial factor to better lives. I want to help kids become interested in reading and obtaining knowledge. This program will help me make a difference in an individual's life and also provide money for me.

Sole self interest. Some tutors sought to join America Reads for personal reasons only. These students wrote of their own likes and interests, of their own needs, and of their qualifications. One student wrote,

> I am interested in this program because I want to work with children in my profession. I have a degree for teacher of speech/hearing handicapped and I am getting my master's in speech pathology. I have had a lot of experience in the past, including a semester of student teaching in a 3rd–5th special ed. class.

Similarly, another student explained,

> I am interested in this program because I feel that it will be a good experience for my major (Human Development and Family Studies). I am planning on going into the field of day care, so this will be a great way to get more involved with children.

Sometimes students seemed to choose America Reads because they thought it would be more interesting than other federal work-study positions. These rationales are evident in comments such as the following:

> [I] like working with children. [I] like reading. [I] don't want an office job.

Students came to work as America Reads tutors with mixtures of expectations about what they had to offer and what they would gain by participating in the program. Additionally, they entered their tutoring positions with different conceptualizations of what reading is, and the best method for teaching it. It is only through a closer look at the classrooms of America Reads, the subject of the next chapter, that we can see how the tutors' values were brought to bear on the actual implementation of the program.

The Values at Penn State: A Summary

To summarize, the administration at Penn State primarily valued prestige and funding (business values), recognizing the need for research and supporting children in their efforts at literacy, but never moving toward these goals. (See a summary of these values in Table 6 on page 80.) This is similar to the phenomenon that Aronowitz (1998) has noted:

> As long as they get cash, desperate administrators are eager to have their university reflect the whims of individuals and the interests of corporations.... All over America what was once the hidden curriculum—the subordination of higher education to the needs of capital—has become an open, frank policy of public and private higher education. (p. 32)

Aronowitz also explains that the culture of the corporate university applies "accounting principles" to academic employment and planning as,

> Cost benefit and cost containment is, in many schools, the main criterion for perpetuating or starting a program: Will it pay for itself in terms of tuition, outside research and other funds? (p. 34)

Table 6
Values at Penn State

PSU Administration	PSU Coordinator	PSU Tutors
Prestige	Literacy	Caring ← → Self interest
Economic capital	Community	Phonics/skills-based orientation to reading
	Resourcefulness	

The values of the Penn State administration clearly reflect these same corporate values. Penn State signed on for America Reads expecting to reap benefits that would cost them little money. Instead of ceding to the neoliberal values of the federal government, the university sought values that would bring acclaim and funding, aligned with values of a "big business" (see Frederick, 1995). But after the program was taken on by Penn State, the power shifted to the hands of the program's coordinator, Priscilla Carman, who did not buy into these same corporate values.

Carman valued multiple aspects of literacy, community, and resourcefulness. She sought to mobilize these values through the brief training and overall coordination of the program (for example, by arranging for further training experiences and setting up the work placements for the tutors). The program became her own to the extent that she organized it, made the placements, and conducted the training. However, after the initial placements of the tutors were made, the program was essentially handed over to the tutors and teachers. The power shifted again.

The Use of Power at Penn State: Some Conclusions

The values and goals of these various stakeholders were enacted at several different levels dependent on the level of power that each group could mobilize. In this look at the stakeholders at Penn State, we can see the discursive nature of power as it wandered from one group to another. As the administrators and program coordinator took

over the program, there is evidence of attempts to infuse their own values into the spaces where the federal expectations for the program were less than clear.

At the administrative level, the struggle for economic capital had consequences for the operation of the America Reads initiative at Penn State. Had size not been a motivation, the program may have been smaller and more manageable for the coordinator. There also may have been more involvement by the administration, more research, and more local funding if a smaller and more flexible program had been put in place.

The administration at Penn State exercised their power by setting limitations for those who were operating at different levels within the university. In other words, by delineating the type of program that America Reads would be at Penn State based solely on administrative goals, those who were "in charge" exercised a form of disciplinary power that directly impacted the shape the program would take at this site.

The administration, while exercising its own form of power, also was limited by the federal government's sovereign decisions and ideological definitions of America Reads. For instance, the government could have built in funding for overhead costs for the program. Building in these costs would have meant that more funding would be required to get the program running. Instead, America Reads shows evidence of how the federal government provided a neoliberal vision for schools and then turned the bulk of funding and implementation issues to a local level (Kirst & Guthrie, 1994).

The federal government and the administration at Penn State were not the only ones exercising disciplinary power. Priscilla Carman, working within the administration's guidelines, exercised a form of disciplinary power as well. She attempted some normalizing of values through her training sessions, but this was met with the firmly established values of the tutors. Carman's goals and values shaped the training and placements of the tutors, and perhaps the nature of the tutors' expectations of their work with America Reads. Carman's leadership of the program involved making decisions, both good and bad, that would either constrain or facilitate the tutors' efforts either theoretically or in real practice.

Each group of stakeholders invested in America Reads tried to implement their own values into the program. Some tension arose as

each group realized that they were in the program, with some loose but set parameters. The administration, coordinator, and tutors all wanted to do what was expected of them in order to keep the program running, but it was not always clear what their responsibilities were.

The Penn State administration and Priscilla Carman (and eventually the tutors) needed to follow the guidelines of the program in order to continue their work with America Reads. The program was channeled through John Cahir as the head of the America Reads program, and then given over to Priscilla Carman to run the daily aspects of it. This unspoken "chain of command" made Carman feel accountable to the administration and to the broader aspects of the federal program. However, there still existed some flexibility within the parameters that had been established, which became the point at which each of the stakeholders' values could be mobilized.

Because power can never be secured completely (Clegg, 1989), the America Reads program was not made entirely in an image the federal government, the Penn State administration, or the coordinator planned. The federal government did not control the University Park campus of Penn State, nor did Penn State control Priscilla Carman. Likewise, Carman did not control the tutors. As we will see in the next chapter, agency became a factor as tutors were deployed into the community. In other words, the university set the program in place according to administrative parameters, which were then carried out or resisted by the coordinator of the program; but, Penn State's America Reads was carried out by other agents as well (not just tutors, but also teachers and schools). These agents had their own agendas, goals, and values. So, although the university may have facilitated or limited the program in some ways, it remained unclear how the program would take shape until the tutors entered the schools to work with children.

In the end, the program was handed over to the tutors and schools, with little or no intervention by the federal government or the university. The administration's values constrained Pricilla Carman's efforts to some extent, but she was still able to impress her own values on the tutors. The tutors began the program with their own ideas about the work they would do. However, as the next chapter demonstrates, the power shifted largely to the classroom teachers as America Reads was implemented in the schools.

Five Schools Take on the Challenge

The polished reading of Justin and Elizabeth in Wyandotte, Michigan, described earlier, is far removed from the scene that opened this book of Paul in a rural Pennsylvania school. For Paul there were no reporters, no cheering crowds, and no president to congratulate him for doing his duty as a citizen by learning to read. There is just Paul and a Penn State student, who had her mother send some of her childhood books from home so she would have materials to read with the 7 or 8 third-grade children she tutored each week. This is one of the many scenes that came to represent America Reads at Penn State throughout the course of the first year of the program. This chapter will share the experiences of the children, tutors, and teachers who became involved with the program as we seek to better understand the values that shaped the program at the various sites.

Four elementary schools and one day-care center agreed to be sites for this study. Three schools were located in the same district and are often referred to collectively in this chapter as the Petersburg schools, while the other two schools were in different districts in the community surrounding Penn State. Tutors and teachers were selected based on who worked in the schools. All tutors and teachers at each site agreed to talk with me about their involvement with America Reads, and all permitted me access to their classrooms. All names of the schools, tutors, teachers, and children have been changed. (See Table 7 on pages 84–85 for a roster of tutors, teachers, and schools.)

Table 7
Roster of Tutors, Teachers, and Schools

School	Teacher	Tutor
Bear Creek Elementary (Dr. Mary Long, Principal)	Mrs. A. DeLuca (First grade)	Sandra Evanson (tutored one morning a week from 9/97 to 11/97 for both first-grade teachers)
	Mrs. S. Williams (First grade)	
	Mrs. D. King (Second grade)	Bridget Forbes (tutored three mornings a week from 9/97 to 11/97)
	Miss T. Shauver (Third grade)	Julie Smith (tutored two full days a week from 9/97 to 11/97, then one morning a week from 1/98 to 3/98)
	Mrs. J. Turner (Third grade)	Stephanie Wilson (tutored two mornings a week from 9/97 to 11/97, then one morning a week from 1/98 to 3/98)
Petersburg Schools (W. Miller, superintendent)	Ms. A. Hardy and Ms. T. Evans were reading specialists who coordinated and oversaw the work of the America Reads tutors, who they incorporated into an already existing community volunteer reading program.	Amy Dickson Jenny Wagner Donna Montgomery Joan Graham (all tutors worked from 2:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. every Tuesday and Thursday between 1/98 and 3/98, with the exception of the university's spring break and the district's Easter holiday)

(continued)

Table 7
Roster of Tutors, Teachers, and Schools (continued)

School	Teacher	Tutor
Big Oak Day-Care Center Christy Lund, Director	Christy Lund School-aged classroom	Mark Roberts (tutored Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 2:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m. from 9/97 to 11/97, and again from 1/98 to 3/98)
	Christy Lund Toddler classroom	Angie Abrams (tutored Tuesday and Thursday mornings from 9:00 a.m. to 11:00 a.m. from 9/97 to 11/97)
	Ronnie Peterson Kindergarten classroom	Clint McFarland (tutored Monday, Wednesday, and Friday from 2:00 p.m. to 5:00 p.m. from 9/97 to 11/97)

Bear Creek Elementary School

The summer before the America Reads program began at the Bear Creek Elementary School, Priscilla Carman contacted the reading specialist for the Bear Creek district. The reading specialist, in turn, put notes in the teachers' mailboxes to find out who would be interested in having an America Reads tutor. Four teachers from a faculty of approximately 24 regular classroom teachers at Bear Creek responded. A fifth teacher was asked by a participating teacher to take a tutor for 30 minutes on the day the tutor was at the school.

The Bear Creek Elementary School is located approximately 25 miles northeast of Penn State. It is a fairly large elementary school, with a reported enrollment of 636 children in grades K–6 in the 1997–1998 school year. Manns (1998) reported that, for this same year, the school had an average class size of 21 to 23 students, with a

teacher-student ratio of 15.7. Nearly 39% of the students were low-income, based on their eligibility for free or reduced lunches. Three percent of the students at the school were considered English as a Second Language (ESL) students.

This particular school provides much support staff for its students. Throughout the day, a reading specialist circulates among the classrooms to provide assistance to students, as do several other paraprofessionals. Additionally, high school students who are interested in a career in elementary education spend regular volunteer hours in the elementary classrooms. Bear Creek also sponsors student teachers from Penn State, both those who are meeting a pre-student teaching requirement and those who are doing their full-time student teaching. According to one tutor at the school, there were a number of parents who volunteered in the classrooms (S. Evanson, tutor, personal communication, November 27, 1997), but none were present during my visits to the school. Throughout the year of this study, I consistently witnessed at least one other adult in the classroom (either a paraprofessional, reading specialist, parent volunteer, or high school volunteer) in addition to the America Reads tutor and the teacher.

The teachers at this school all admitted at some point during our conversations that they had never heard of America Reads before receiving this information. They liked the program and expressed an interest in it for various reasons, the most common of which was the need for "extra hands" in the classroom (D. King, personal communication, November 12, 1997). Mrs. King, a first-grade teacher, enlisted a tutor out of concern for the needs of "a really low boy" in her class, while Ms. Shauver, a third-grade teacher, decided "the more hands the better" (T. Shauver, personal communication, March 19, 1998). Mrs. Turner, a third-grade teacher, was not sure if she would be eligible because she "had all high kids" (J. Turner, personal communication, March 31, 1998), but she requested a tutor anyway. A general sense of uncertainty, mainly about why the tutors were there and what exactly should be done with them, remained throughout the year as teachers and tutors wondered "what to do, now that the program was in place" (S. Wilson, personal communication, October 16, 1997). Although the teachers knew little about the federal conceptualizations of the program, issues of surveillance and normalization came into play as they wondered about the intentions of the program and the role of the tutors.

The principal of the school, Dr. Long, who shared that she had a nephew working as an America Reads tutor in Colorado (M. Long, personal communication, December 10, 1997), expressed a keen interest in the program. She knew of other elementary schools in the same district that she felt had greater needs than Bear Creek Elementary, and early in the year she was told that each building in the district could have two tutors. When Bear Creek was the only school to receive a tutor, she recognized that the reason was that the other schools in the district were in outlying areas that would be more difficult for the tutors to reach (M. Long, personal communication, December 10, 1997). The four tutors who worked at this site needed to provide their own transportation. Penn State paid for their travel time with federal work-study funding, but could not reimburse them for travel or mileage expenses.

During the fall semester of 1997, four tutors worked in first-, second-, and third-grade classrooms. Long described the teachers who took the tutors as "those who are not afraid to try something new, and who tend to welcome more people into their classrooms because they see the benefit of the additional help" (M. Long, personal communication, December 10, 1997). I requested permission from Long to speak with teachers who did not take America Reads tutors into their classrooms. She suggested that this was not necessary, and reassured me that the teachers who did not take the tutors either missed the fliers in their mailboxes due to the large amount of mail at the beginning of the school year, or they simply did not know what America Reads was (M. Long, personal communication, December 10, 1997). By the spring semester there were only two of the four original tutors remaining. The number of hours these two tutors worked in the school was also significantly less than the fall semester due to changes in their own schedule or the depletion of their federal work-study funds.

Petersburg Schools

The two reading specialists, at the Petersburg schools, Ms. Hardy and Ms. Evan, characterized by the school superintendent as "leaders relative to [the] elementary reading curriculum" (W. Miller, personal communication, January 13, 1998) took a pro-active role when they learned America Reads tutors at Penn State would be available to

them. Over 5 years they had developed a program using community volunteers (mostly parents and senior citizens) as tutors for children who were considered "at risk." These children were not those who struggled the most with reading; those struggling the most received individual instruction from the specialists in the district. Instead, the children who met with the tutors were those who could potentially benefit from some added support. Both Ms. Hardy and Ms. Evan felt that the community tutoring program they already had in place could be bolstered by coordinating it with America Reads.

The Petersburg Schools constitute a second set of elementary schools in this study. These rural schools are located roughly 40 miles west of Penn State, and were one of the two outlying sites that Penn State accessed with a university vehicle in the spring of 1998, 8 months into the program. Four tutors traveled to these schools twice each week for 14 weeks.

According to the district superintendent's office, the Petersburg schools had an elementary student enrollment of 1,245 during the 1997–1998 academic year, with Manns (1998) reporting the following statistics: average class size ranging from 1 to 23; the percentage of low income students ranging from 31.7% to 48.7%; and the student teacher ratio averaging between 15 and 24.

Ms. Hardy and Ms. Evan sponsored one training session for the America Reads tutors on the Penn State campus. During the training, tutors were taught the structure of the 30-minute tutoring sessions they would be expected to conduct, information on cueing systems in reading, and practice in conducting a running record. Much of the training was derived from the Reading Recovery program (see Clay, 1993). Typically, a session began with "fast writes" in which students would quickly write sight words on a dry-erase board. Then the children would proceed by re-reading a familiar book while the tutor conducted a running record. Based on the child's reading, the tutor would give specific strategy instruction to help the child as he or she encountered unfamiliar words in print. Often the strategy instruction involved aspects of onset-rime. This was followed by the student writing a sentence that would be written by the instructor on a strip of paper, that was cut up around the words and sent home for the student to practice reconstructing. The final minutes of the session would be spent by previewing a new book for the next tutorial time.

A second training was held at one of the elementary schools in January 1998. Ms. Hardy organized this second meeting as a review of the earlier training and as a time for the tutors to meet with the community volunteers. Because the Penn State tutors and the community tutors would be working with children on alternate days, this was the only opportunity they had to meet each other. Any other communication between them would take place in the notebooks that held the children's information and records of the tutoring sessions.

At the Petersburg schools the Penn State tutors worked with two children each, two times per week. After the tutoring sessions were completed for the day, all four tutors met at the Petersburg Elementary School to help children attending the "homework club" for an hour after school on the 2 days they worked.

Big Oak Day-Care Center

The Big Oak Day-Care Center opened in Boalsburg, Pennsylvania, in August 1997. The center, located approximately 5 miles south of the Penn State campus, enrolled nearly 50 children from 6 weeks of age to school age. During the year of this study, no demographic data pertaining to family income was available from this site. The school-age children attended a before- and/or after-school program. The owner of the center, in collaboration with Ms. Lund, the center's director, decided to take America Reads tutors because, in her words,

> It's just people coming in. And, Penn State's paying for them. They all have their clearances. You know, it's like an extra set of hands in the classroom. (C. Lund, personal communication, October 8, 1997)

Because Ms. Christy was the director, the preschool teacher, and the after-school program teacher, she assigned two of the three tutors sent to the school (Mark and Angie) to work in her classrooms. The third tutor, Clint, was placed with the kindergarten teacher, Ms. Peterson. This decision was a result of Ms. Lund's concerns about Ms. Peterson's pedagogical practices. During the fall semester, Ms. Lund worked with Ms. Peterson to help her engage in teaching practices that were more consistent with the school's child-centered philosophy (C. Lund, personal communication, October 8, 1997). Ms. Peterson resigned her position with the school in early December, just a few

weeks after Clint left his tutoring position to transfer to a different university.

By January 1998 when the spring semester began, the center had only one tutor, Mark, remaining. Clint left the school suddenly in November when he decided to leave Penn State, and Angie, who worked with the preschool children, had a change in her university class schedule that prevented her from continuing to work for America Reads.

The Goals and Activities of the Tutors

Throughout the year, these tutors and teachers engaged in a wide range of activities and had many goals to help support the needs of the children in their care. The classrooms looked quite different; there were traditional teachers with rows of desks and posted schedules, child-centered teachers with clusters of desks and interactive engagements, and early childhood teachers with "centers" in their colorful carpeted rooms. At Big Oak, there emerged from the data three primary categories of activities and goals for the tutors: literacy activities, nonliteracy activities, and learning to "be" in classrooms. The discussion of each of these three groups of activities will include descriptions of the tutors' resistance to certain activities, aspects of the program that both the tutors and teachers described as their personal rewards from the program, and the challenges and surprises from the classrooms throughout the year.

Literacy Activities

These activities reflect a broadly defined definition of literacy that comes from the *IRA/NCTE Standards for the English Language Arts* (1996) (see Appendix C for a summary of the *Standards*). This definition of literacy includes reading, writing, speaking, viewing, and visually representing texts that include spoken language, graphics, and technological communications (Cox, 1999). At all sites, tutors engaged in literacy activities that often entailed more than the reading and skills-based engagements suggested by the U.S. government. For instance, the *Read*Write*Now! Partners Tutoring Program* compiled by Venezky (1995) encourages America Reads tutors to set up sessions in which: "the student may read aloud with the tutor, read aloud alone, work on vocabulary, word attack, or comprehension strate-

gies, and engage in writing" (p. 3). The tutors from Penn State engaged children in literacy activities that at times diverged from the suggestions made by Venezky. Following are descriptions of the variety of literacy activities observed with this particular subset of tutors.

READING ALOUD. Of the 12 tutors who participated in this portion of study, two regularly read aloud to students in classrooms. Both of these tutors worked at the Big Oak Day-Care Center. Clint conducted daily read-alouds with the kindergarten children, usually reading up to 15 minutes each day during his 3-hour shift. He often went to the education library on the Penn State campus in order to find texts he thought the children would enjoy. In addition to a "regular" read-aloud time, Clint would sometimes read in order to control the children. Ms. Peterson, the kindergarten teacher who worked with Clint, explained:

> There were quite a few times [when Clint would read aloud]—like whenever they get restless and they were done with their work and there was extra time. They would read a story. They'd get a story read to them by Clint. (R. Peterson, personal communication, November 25, 1997)

Angie, who worked with the preschool children on Tuesday and Thursday mornings, also read aloud to the children, but with less independence than Clint. Usually on Tuesday, Ms. Lund would give Angie a book. Then Angie could practice reading the book and conduct the read-aloud when she returned on Thursday. In Ms. Lund's class, the only time books were read aloud was on Thursday mornings, in accordance with a "reading readiness" schedule that she maintained. Her program involved reading one story once each week that emphasized a "letter of the week," followed by extensions of the story in the form of games and projects (C. Lund, personal communication, October 8, 1997).

Those tutors who were involved with classrooms but not reading aloud encountered somewhat unanticipated challenges. For instance, Bridget, a tutor in a first-grade classroom at Bear Creek, found that there was no time in the teacher's schedule for her to read to the children:

> You know, to have a read-aloud, or to take like that 15 minutes out, that wouldn't work because there's just so much else to do. And that, I didn't know how that was going to work because I really wanted to do that. And the thing is, none of [the children] have wanted me to read. (B. Forbes, personal communication, November 21, 1997)

The tutors in this study, no matter what their situation, had to adjust their personal expectations for their work as tutors to fit the schedules and needs of the classrooms in which they worked. If the teacher had no read-aloud time in her schedule during the time the tutor was available, there was no read aloud conducted by the tutor.

CHILDREN READING TO TUTORS. Nine of the twelve tutors spent at least some portion of their time listening to children read. The three tutors who did not have this opportunity were those mostly involved as "helpers" (grading papers, doing bulletin boards, or other similar activities). Listening to children read varied from the more structured reading events expected of the tutors who were following the *Reading Recovery* model in the Petersburg schools, to informal sessions with preschoolers who "read" the pictures of the books to a tutor.

Julie, the tutor in the scene that opened this book, listened to third-grade children read aloud almost completely independently of the Bear Creek classroom teacher. She explained that she typically reported very general things to the children's third-grade teacher, comments such as "the children seem to be making progress." Otherwise, she had little communication with the teacher, who was very busy with other tasks in the classroom during the times when Julie was there. Julie took the children who were recommended for tutoring by the teacher to a table in the hallway, and it was there that she listened to them read books from the collection her mother sent to her from home. Unlike any of the other tutors who participated in this study, most of the tutoring ideas Julie employed came from the *Read*Write*Now!* tutoring manual (J. Smith, personal communication, March 19, 1998).

Sandra, who, like Julie, was tutor for a first-grade teacher at the Bear Creek Elementary School, had perhaps one of the most unique situations. Rather than working with the children who were struggling with reading, Sandra worked with children in the class who were considered strong readers. The teacher, Mrs. DeLuca, wanted to structure the readings so those children she considered the best readers would have a turn at reading with someone. She explained that there was quite a bit of support in the school for struggling readers, and she was sometimes concerned that the better readers did not have quite the same attention. With Sandra in the classroom, she found a way to provide an opportunity for these children to have extra practice with reading. Each day

when Sandra entered the room, she picked up the list of children, called one over to her desk at the side of the room, and listened to the child read. When the children became particularly fluent with a book they selected, their name was placed in a "read aloud log," so Mrs. DeLuca would know they were ready to read that book aloud to the class.

Mark, who tutored school-age children at the Big Oak Day-Care Center, had his first opportunity to listen to a child reading aloud in February, 6 months into his work as a tutor. A parent approached Ms. Christy because her daughter, Tabatha, had been struggling with reading. Ms. Christy suggested that Tabatha read aloud to Mark for 10 minutes each of the three days Mark worked at the center. Mark listened to Tabatha read a book, which was usually selected by Ms. Christy, and then had her retell what she read. He corrected any oral reading miscues the child made. The only other reading that Mark listened to during his sessions at the center involved having children read lists of spelling words to him as they worked on their homework.

There were times when the tutors would listen to the children tell stories, because some of the children were younger and not conventional readers in the sense that their oral reading matched the printed text. Clint, the tutor in the kindergarten class, explained,

> You know, it's like I go there just to read a story. But, the story's good and the discussion's good, and they always do some funny things. It's fun to listen to the way they build stories, because, they can tell some pretty tall tales. The 5-year-old boys are trying to out-do each other. (C. McFarland, personal communication, September 18, 1997)

Any time the tutors were involved with listening to children read aloud, they also engaged in coaching the children who made oral reading errors. This coaching typically involved telling the child to "sound out" the word. A commonly observed example of this coaching is captured in the following excerpt from field notes of an observation at a Petersburg elementary school:

> On page three when Donald stopped at the word *crunching* Amy told him to "sound it out." She said "crrr," and he replied "crashing." Amy responded "crunching." Donald asked, "What's that word again?" and Amy replied, "You read it. You read it before." Donald said, "No, I didn't." Amy replied, "Yes, you did." As they started page four, Amy said "sound it out." Donald said "d" [the sound, duh], and Amy correct-

ed him by saying "b" [the sound, buh]. Donald guessed "bunching" and Amanda quickly corrected, "banging." (field notes, March 3, 1998)

The other strategy suggested by the tutors was covering the inflectional endings of the words (the -ings, -s, or -ed), and having the child read the root of the word first. Although the tutors who worked with the children in the Petersburg schools had been trained to teach the children different strategies based on the cueing systems used in reading (Goodman, 1986), such as skipping an unfamiliar word and returning to it or using the illustrations to help figure out an unfamiliar word, none of the tutors seemed to suggest strategies other than "sounding out" an unknown word or identifying the root of the word.

Most of the tutors engaged in other literacy events that were unique to their individual classrooms. At the day-care center, Mark helped the school-age children practice spelling tests. Meanwhile, Angie, who worked in the preschool room, helped the children learn to sing fingerplays and rhymes that supported their oral language development and early reading skills as part of Ms. Christy's "reading readiness" program for the preschoolers.

Stephanie, a third-grade tutor at Bear Creek, supported children in their use of computers and writing. This same tutor also helped the classroom teacher in activities that were extensions of books the class read together. For example, she was responsible for helping the children chop vegetables to make soup for an activity related to the class's reading of Cynthia Rylant's book, *When I Was Young in the Mountains*.

Also at the Bear Creek school, Julie helped the children with their number literacy each day she was there. When she first entered the third-grade classroom, she was responsible for "banking" with the children. This meant that the children would take the play money they had earned to Julie and then decide how much they would "deposit" or "withdraw" from the "bank." The children earned the play money based on a classroom reward system established by the teacher. They were "paid" for having homework done, having a neat desk, sitting quietly, or any other activity that complied with the teacher's requests. They lost money for any noncompliance.

Seven of the tutors regularly played games with the children, an activity that could potentially involve a range of literacy events. The tutors at the Petersburg elementary schools would play games such as a

number matching game or a memory game. Some tutors also played word finds and other puzzles with the students. Likewise, Clint, the tutor for the kindergarten class in the Big Oak Day-Care Center, played games and worked on puzzles with the children. It was not uncommon to find Clint playing tag and football outside with the children (C. McFarland, personal communication, September 18, 1997).

Overall, the range of literacy activities the tutors engaged in was broad, and varied from classroom to classroom. Decisions about the types of activities the tutors would use to teach the children were largely determined by the classroom teachers.

Nonliteracy Activities

In addition to supporting the children in a range of activities that could be broadly defined as literacy events, the tutors also supported the children by engaging in activities that did not directly relate to their development of literacy. Most of these events included helping the teachers with tasks such as serving snacks to the children, meeting the children after school at the bus stop, or helping the children move from one classroom to another in the school building. There were occasions when these nonliteracy events resulted in the tutors asking for a change in placement. One tutor explained her concern after she spent her first semester as a tutor in a child-care center on the Penn State campus (D. Montgomery, personal communication, January 20, 1998). At this site, she supervised nap time for the children, and as the children woke from their nap, she gave them a snack. Because she was a speech therapy major and was seeking to gain more experience working with children, she requested a change in placement. She felt the Petersburg site would be more appropriate and felt confident that it was a good move because her major was related to reading and she had learned about the cueing systems in one of her undergraduate classes (D. Montgomery, personal communication, January 20, 1998). A similar scenario was described by a second tutor, Amy, who also transferred to the Petersburg schools for her second semester as a tutor. She wanted a different situation because she felt inadequately used in her capacity as an America Reads tutor when she worked in an infant room of a day-care center (A. Dickson, personal communication January 20, 1998). She was scheduled during nap time and had no opportunity to interact with the children. Priscilla

Carman was concerned about the work tutors were expected to do in child-care centers. She was made aware of several situations in which tutors were asked to wash dishes or clean, an issue that she addressed by talking with those in charge about how they were expected to use the volunteer tutors that came to their schools (P. Carman, personal communication, December 10, 1997).

Bridget began her tutoring experience in a kindergarten classroom at Bear Creek. She requested a change when she realized she would be spending her time stapling papers, gluing projects, and constructing bulletin boards. She explained,

> I wasn't doing what I was supposed to be doing. (The kindergarten teacher) only has 20 kids, and you can't really tutor kindergarten children because they can't read. They couldn't read, so I talked to Priscilla and asked if I could be switched into another grade. (B. Forbes, personal communication, October 13, 1997)

Even after Bridget was assigned to a third-grade class, the work was not quite what she had expected in terms of supporting children in reading. She described her concern:

> (I'm not helping with reading) as much as I thought I would be when I entered the program. I mean, I don't mind helping with this math, or finish the spelling and phonics and that. To take 15 minutes out to have a read aloud wouldn't work because there's so much else to do. (B. Forbes, personal communication, November 21, 1997)

Stephanie, another tutor at Bear Creek, described how, particularly at the beginning of the school year, she had to "go along" with the teacher (S. Wilson, personal communication, March 31, 1998). This meant that she would spend her time going through old phonics books, making handouts of the pages that were missing, and re-stapling the books together. Sandra, who tutored the strong readers in Mrs. DeLuca's class, went to Mrs. Williams' first-grade room when Mrs. DeLuca's students went to music class. In Mrs. Williams' room, Sandra spent her time making flash cards for children, decorating bulletin boards, and tearing pages out of phonics and math workbooks to staple them together (S. Evanson, personal communication, November 27, 1997). Helping the teacher and going along with her plans resulted in tutors working in a variety of ways in the classrooms.

Even though the tutors may have entered the program with the expectation that they would be reading to children and teaching them to read (however they may have defined this), many realized that ultimately, the classroom teacher determined how they would be functioning in the classrooms. The only way this set of tutors demonstrated control over the parameters of their work was by notifying Priscilla Carman and requesting an alternate placement if their situation conflicted with their expectations of what their work in the program would be like.

Learning to "Be" in Classrooms

This final category of tutor activities involves the activities in which tutors participated that helped them learn the "ins and outs" of classroom life. The tutors were placed in a variety of situations in which they needed to monitor children, be in charge of classrooms, find resources, and essentially experience the various roles that teachers take on throughout the course of any given day. The following examples serve to illustrate this category of activities.

All the tutors experienced times when they became role models for the children in their classrooms. The two male tutors were especially unique to the children and parents of the day-care center, which employed only female teachers at the time of the study. Ms. Lund explained:

> A few people have mentioned, you know, like with Clint and Mark, their son liked having a male figure there...it's just neat for them to have a male figure there, let alone playing and doing stuff with them. (C. Lund, personal communication, October 8, 1997)

Ms. Ronnie, the kindergarten teacher at the day-care center, expressed some relief about having a male figure in a classroom made up mostly of boys:

> (Clint's) really good. Especially with the boys. I can't control them. (R. Peterson, personal communication, October 27, 1997)

She explained that she really missed having him in the classroom on Tuesdays and Thursdays when he did not work at the center. This absence became even more pronounced when Clint left.

Eight of the twelve tutors found themselves completely in charge of children at different times, and for varying lengths of time. The four

tutors who worked at the Petersburg schools did their tutoring independently of the classroom situation, much like Julie at the Bear Creek school. These tutors had little to no communication with the regular classroom teachers. They took the children out of their classrooms and worked with them independent of any direct supervision.

Two of the tutors at Bear Creek and two of the tutors at the Big Oak Day-Care Center found themselves in charge of a classroom of children at various times. At Bear Creek, this situation occurred for the tutors when the teacher needed to leave the room to make photocopies or attend to other business, such as phone calls. It was also an issue when a substitute teacher filled in for the regular classroom teacher. As Stephanie and Bridget explained it, the substitute was unfamiliar with the classroom routine, so they took over since they knew what to do. The principal of the elementary school seemed pleased that the tutors could assist in this capacity.

For the tutors at the day-care center, their role as "teacher" involved being in charge when either Ms. Peterson or Ms. Lund left the room to attend to parents, phone calls, or any other disruption to their schedule. Clint's presence in the kindergarten room, both with or without the teacher, was reassuring to the director of the school:

> I like when (Clint's) in there. It makes me feel better because (Ms. Ronnie) needs to practice with her classroom management. When you have a group there's a lot that goes on, and it takes practice and experience to know how to deal with this and that and the other all at the same time. So I like when he's in there. It makes me feel better that she's not overburdened. (personal communication, October 8, 1997)

Whether or not the teacher was in the room, each tutor was responsible for monitoring the children they tutored. This meant that they would question why a child's homework was not done (A. Dickson, observation, March 3, 1998), remind children not to stand on chairs or talk at the wrong times (C. McFarland, personal communication, September 18, 1998), and not to poke other children (field notes, October 27, 1997). Even with the teacher in the classroom, tutors found themselves directing the children. Bridget described her experiences:

> I'll say their names and say, "Oh, you know, how are you doing today Tyler." Or this little boy, Tim, he was separated from his two other seats and I was "Tim, you know, what are you doing over here?" I know what

> he's like, and I know why (Mrs. King moved him) and say, "Tim, why are you over here?" (and he'd say) "I kept pushing their desk." And I'd say, "Why did you do that? You know, you're going to be here for a week or more by yourself? Do you like that?" I just like try to find out why they do things. (personal communication, October 13, 1997)

Part of the tutors' learning about classrooms directly involved learning about children. The tutors needed to negotiate how long children would be able to pay attention to the stories they read, and learn the reasons why children behave in particular ways. Bridget concluded the following about some of the children in her class:

> They're not slow. They're just slow moving. And you have to keep after them. I say, get out your book, turn to page, and I found I had to keep going back over and standing there, but lately I haven't had to do that, now I just look at them across the room and they're like "O.K., come on, let's go." (personal communication, November 21, 1997)

One of the tutors at the Petersburg school worked out her own reward system for the students she tutored. As she experienced resistance from the children, she would encourage them by offering to give them a piece of candy the next time she visited (A. Dickson, observation, March 3, 1998). It didn't seem to occur to her that this was not appropriate for students who faced challenges such as attention deficit and behavioral disorders. Because there was no immediate supervision of this tutor, there was no one to suggest otherwise.

The tutors learned that socializing with children would be part of the job. The children needed someone to talk with them, someone to show their sports trophies to, and someone to nurture them. In all situations, the tutors were welcomed and very much liked by the children.

Much like classroom teachers, the tutors experienced the need to gather resources, extra training, and to share their space with other teachers. They experienced challenges in communicating with the teachers, isolation from their peers and the America Reads coordinator. In addition to the challenges of working in a classroom, the tutors were faced with disruptions inherent to their position as students—such as changes in class schedules, the illness of tutors who were providing transportation to their site, and using up their federal work-study funding which prevented them from getting paid for their services.

Even though the tutors may have had their own goals for the program, they had little power to enact them in light of the needs of the teachers and the constraints of America Reads program. For example, Clint expressed a desire to develop extension activities for the books he read. Although this may reflect some influence from Penn State's program coordinator, who also wanted to develop more activities for books, it was something that Clint never had the time to do, given the constraints of his federal work-study funding (C. McFarland, personal communication, October 27, 1997).

The result was that the children received instruction that reflected the values of the teacher(s) the tutors worked for. With the exception of Julie, all of the tutors in these schools worked under the influence of classroom teachers, albeit in different ways. The tutors who worked in the Petersburg schools did not always have the reading specialists in the room with them as they tutored, but the instructional expectations were specified clearly during the training. The tutors were always expected to begin with the child re-reading a familiar book, then conduct a running record, preview a new book, provide word strategy instruction, and conclude with a sentence writing exercise. At the end of each session, the tutor was required to write the events of the session in a notebook that would be used by the community volunteer on the alternate day. Likewise, the community volunteer would leave a written record for the America Reads tutor to inform them of the events of their sessions with the child. This written record was a surveillance and accountability tool, although it is not clear how often the reading specialists read through the account. (See Table 8 for a summary of tutor activities.)

In effect, the program became redundant as children received more of the same instruction offered by their regular teachers. The tutors' presence caused no radical changes in the literacy instruction or the school day. Before considering this lack of consequence of redundancy in more detail, we will look more closely at the values of teachers and tutors that become evident in light of the activities of these tutors.

The Local Values of America Reads

The America Reads program was implemented at a local level primarily under the influence of the classroom teachers in public schools.

Table 8
Summary of Tutor Activities

Literacy activities	Nonliteracy activities	Learning to "be" in classrooms
Reading aloud to children	Escorting children to and from the bus or to and from restrooms	Monitoring children
Listening to children read	Distributing snacks	Leading classrooms
Running records	Supervising nap time	Finding resources
Math/Number literacy	Helping the teacher (including stapling papers, photocopying, gluing student work, constructing bulletin boards, and grading papers)	Interacting with children
Word identification strategy instruction		Serving as a role model
Spelling and phonics		Guiding a substitute teacher
Homework helpers		Understanding children (attention spans, interests, etc.)
Extensions of stories		Socializing with children
Computer Instruction/guidance		
Finger plays and songs		
Art activities and games		

The primary values displayed by these teachers involved a combination of meeting children's needs and meeting their own needs (see Table 9 on page 102). It seems that to some extent all the teachers, regardless of how the tutors were employed in the classrooms, were interested in meeting the needs of the children. Whether the children were strong readers or needed extra support, the teachers were all concerned with providing them sound instruction. Some teachers decided this could be done by having the tutors read to children or listen to children read. Some felt it would be better to have the tutors help with other broadly defined literacy activities. Other teachers seemed to indicate they could meet the needs of the children better if *they* were in charge of the room and the tutors were engaged in nonliteracy activities, essentially functioning as classroom aides. Concurrently, the teachers were meeting their own needs by having a tutor in the room

Table 9
School Values

Teacher values	Tutor values
Children's interest	Teacher's interest (provided it fits their definition of America Reads)
Self interest	Self interest

to assist them with their work. This is not to say that the teachers were incapable of doing the work, but they seemed to value the extra help that could be afforded them through the assistance of a tutor. The tutors became a tool, through disciplinary power, to help them meet the children's needs, as well as their own. In other words, the influence of the teachers at the particular sites provided an immediacy that controlled the tutors actions more than the sovereign or biopower of the federal government's conceptualizations of the program.

The tutors valued helping the teachers and the children, as shown by their willingness to comply with the teacher's requests. Yet, if this did not fit with their expectations of the program the tutors did request a change in placement. The only evidence of the tutors exercising power over the teacher, a disciplinary form of power influenced by an ideology of program expectations, was when they requested a change in placement. This form of resistance by some tutors may indicate a form of disciplinary power that was effected from the coordinator at Penn State through the training sessions, or from a sense of needing to meet the overall goals of the program as outlined by the federal government. Tutors who requested different placements all attended the training session that laid out the expectations of America Reads (that is, helping all children to read independently by the end of the third grade). Here the tutors may have gained an initial understanding of what the nature of their work should be. It is relatively unknown how many tutors remained in placements that were incongruent with the goals of America Reads. Nor is it known how many tutors may have exerted local acts of resistance by trying to alter the expectations of their work once they were in their placements. Because Priscilla Carman was unable to visit each site to observe the

tutors (given the constraints of the large number of tutors and the amount of time it took to coordinate their placements), she could not know the nature of every tutor's responsibilities.

It is possible that students who remained in placements that required them to work in ways other than as a reading tutor may have been responding to the power of the classroom teacher. Or, perhaps they were not certain of the goals of the program and assumed the classroom teachers knew what they should do. Furthermore, for those tutors who resisted some assignments from the classroom teachers, there may have been a certain status to the role of "tutor" that led them to believe that they were not an "aide." As Bridget reminded me,

> I told [Mrs. King that America Reads] was focused more on reading, but I'm here for whatever you need me to do, whatever you think the children need help on. (B. Forbes, personal communication November 21, 1997)

In Bridget's case, she seemed to compromise some balance between the biopower/disciplinary power from the coordinator or federal government's influence, and the disciplinary power of the classroom teacher.

Other tutor values included elements of self interest, which reflects the discourse of the sometimes multiple and competing voices the tutors may have experienced as they attempted to make sense of the various roles they were playing as student, tutor, employee, friend to the children, and more.

In spite of the rhetoric of the federal government, the values of the Penn State administration, and the vision of the America Reads coordinator, teachers ultimately defined the program, even though the original conceptualization of the program appeared to by-pass them. Tyack and Cuban (1995) wrote, "Educators have variously welcomed, improved, deflected, coopted, modified, and sabotaged outside efforts at reform" (p. 7). This seems to be the case with America Reads as well. Teachers who took on tutors mobilized their own values and goals, in effect changing the face of this reform to meet their own needs. What is interesting about the small ways in which the teachers changed the America Reads program is that they were largely unaware of the subjectivity they subscribed to about what it means to teach reading. In other words, the teachers and the federal government were

operating from the same ideological base about reading instruction—either its purposes or its methods. The teachers did more of the same in terms of teaching children to read, only now they had extra help in doing so.

The U.S. government supported a generally skills-based approach to teaching reading, one the teachers were already practicing. In the classrooms in this study, teachers were using reading readiness models, basal readers, phonics workbooks, and other skill-based instruction. The extra hands of the tutors allowed the teachers to extend these activities by making soups or other projects, but basically their practice was unchanged and they never considered other reasons, purposes, or methods for the teaching of literacy.

The fact that there was little change in literacy instruction introduced by the tutors or teachers seems to point to some element of a "classroom mobilization of bias." Fraatz (1987) describes this as "organizational structures and processes [which] condition the ways people interpret their goals, alternatives, resources, and personal contributions to the 'mission' of the institution" (p. 11). There seems to be some element of this phenomenon operating in schools in this study. The organizational structures of the schools and teachers' work within the schools precluded the tutors from initiating change in the classroom literacy activities. The result echoes Fraatz's findings that "in the final analysis, it is the teacher's agenda which predominates" (1987, p. 191). She further explains, "Educators outside the classroom, and children within it, are rarely successful in substituting their own plans for those of the teacher or in gaining sufficient consent for the implementation of their preferred alternatives" (Fraatz, 1987, p. 191). This may be attributed to the power relationships that are firmly in place in classrooms. Sarason (1995) has noted,

> What the general public has not grasped is that there is substantial evidence that the policies proclaimed by educational policy makers (boards of education, superintendents, and their immediate staff) have little or no impact on what happens in classrooms. (p. 253)

Sarason goes on to explain that reform efforts have left existing power relationships in classrooms or between schools. In this case, even a radically different reform such as America Reads did not change the power relationships in the school, nor did it change the teachers'

practice. It still was the teacher who made decisions about how the reform would be effected.

If the federal government was hoping to forward its own values in these classrooms, then the program may not be considered successful. There seems to be little evidence in this study of the values of the federal government or the university at the local level. In these schools, the values of neoliberalism, prestige, and economic capital were not necessarily in the minds of the teachers or tutors who were implementing the program; indeed, most of the teachers had not heard of the program before they were directly confronted with the reality of having a tutor. These teachers' personal philosophies and ways of teaching, which seem to come from the daily experiences of their work and a functionalist perspective that was needed to keep the system running, did not change based on this program. Instead, they were able to do what they had always done in their classrooms. They seemed unaware of any need for fundamental changes in their pedagogical practices, and instead simply wanted more help in the classroom. Based on the fact that none of the teachers had heard of America Reads before the coordinators approached the schools, nor did any of them talk of the federal government or the federal program at any time throughout the year, the teachers seemed disinterested in the federal government's role in this program.

The sovereign power of the federal government, the biopower of normalization, and the disciplinary power of the administration and coordinator at Penn State did little more than set the boundaries for the program in a vague sense. As a result, the program was left to the discretion of the teacher. The tutors would comply with the needs of the teachers, as long as these needs were not overly oppressive, and still fit their own perception of the job they were to do for America Reads and their own schedule. This could require tutors to staple papers and prepare materials or complement an existing community volunteer tutoring program. Whether or not the activities described here fit neatly within the original plans for America Reads or whether educators may agree with all the practices of these tutors and teachers, this is how America Reads served needs in these particular instances.

CHAPTER 6

Implications of This Study

During the summer of 1999, President Clinton embarked on what his speech writers called his "marketing tour," but what others referred to as his poverty tour. He spent a few weeks visiting areas of the United States that have been the most devastated by poverty—including the Pine Ridge Indian Reservation in South Dakota, where he was the first sitting President since Franklin D. Roosevelt to visit a reservation, and the La Canasta Food Products Factory in South Phoenix, Arizona. The purpose of the tour was to call attention to areas of the country where big businesses or corporations could invest and find a workforce ready and waiting; however, after citing statistics that support his claim that the United States is doing well, Clinton remarked,

> But we know as blessed as America has been, not every American has been blessed by this recovery. All you've got to do is drive down the streets here in South Phoenix to see that. So what we are doing is going around the country to say we can do better, that morally, now that we're doing so well, we have an obligation to give every American who is willing to work for it a chance to walk across that bridge into the 21st century with us, so we go forward together, leaving no one behind. (1999, July)

It appears that even Clinton recognizes that his policies have served some, but they have not served a large portion of the U.S. population. The rhetoric of Clinton's speeches, including his reference to the "bridge into the 21st century," has not changed dramatically since his second campaign for office. Nor will his speeches or policies, particularly in education, change dramatically as he finishes his final term. As we listen to the "practical idealism" of Al Gore, or the "compassionate conservativism" of George W. Bush as they campaign for

the 2000 U.S. presidency, we can only wonder if there will be any significant changes in education policy when the next president takes office. Regardless of who the next president will be, the federal government will continue to be involved in matters of education—which means that educators must work to be political, to understand the values of those who are making the policies, and to critically understand the social and historical aspects that affect the daily work in which we engage.

The federal government conceptualized America Reads as part of an effort to secure universal literacy for all citizens. From a neoliberal perspective, universal literacy is the first step toward a learning society that will ensure economic progress for the United States (Marshall & Tucker, 1992). The America Reads Challenge has offered a neoliberal option for how this broader political vision could be obtained. A critical analysis of the policy reveals core values of neoliberals, including community, efficiency, equity, and economy, as well as hidden values such as normalization, centralization, marketization, and self interest. (See Table 10 for a summary of values at various levels.)

After initiating the program, the federal government turned it over to the administrations of a large number of universities, which became the point for policy articulation (see Ball, 1990). The Penn State ad-

Table 10
Summary of Values at Various Levels of This Study

Federal government	Penn State	Schools
Official values	Administration	Teachers
Efficiency	Prestige	Children's interests
Equity	Economic capital	Self interest
Economy		
Community	Coordinator	Tutors
	Literacy	Teachers and
Hidden values	Resourcefulness	children's needs
Normalization	Community	Self interest
Centralization		
Marketization	Tutors	
Self interest	Caring	
	Self interest	

ministration, with its own values of economic capital and prestige, supported the policy publicly, and then placed it in the hands of the program coordinator. As the program coordinator worked within the constraints of the administration's values, including funding issues, as well as her perceptions of the federal government's intentions and limitations on the population she could serve (PreK–Grade 3), she was able to mobilize some of her own values through the training sessions and tutor placements. She felt the effects of the disciplinary and biopower of the administration and federal government as she tried to meet the expectations of both entities.

However, after the program was set in motion through Penn State, it was largely placed in the hands of the teachers in local schools and the tutors who worked with them. The values of the teachers largely reflected a combination of meeting the children's needs and their own needs. Based on the data from these schools, there was evidence that the teachers and tutors were, for the most part, willing to do what was necessary to meet the needs of the children in their classrooms. Essentially, the program took shape at the classroom level. Tutors cooperated with the classroom teachers, provided the expectations of the teachers fit within the tutor's expectations of the work they should do in schools. Priority was placed on meeting the daily demands of school, while the broader political concerns of this program were of seemingly little concern.

The largely functionalist analyses that these educators made of the program (in other words, How will it fit in my classroom?) led them to subscribe to America Reads and determine that it was largely a good program. In effect, America Reads could be characterized as a "populist" program (Popkewitz, 1998) that seemed to be for the common good of society. As far as any one could determine, their own values were being realized.

We should not necessarily expect that the values and goals of each group of stake holders should be aligned. Nor should we expect that consensus on all aspects of the policy is possible or desirable. The only true consensus that occurred was that all groups had some vested interest in helping children learn to read. Beyond this, there was potential dissensus about the purposes of children learning to read, and indeed about the purposes of public education in general. In other words, if teachers had questioned the overall vision for schools

that was promoted through the America Reads program, there may have been more overt resistance to the policy. However, given the fact that educators were not critically analyzing the program, these questions were not raised.

The evolution of the America Reads policy, and the discursive nature of power that was evident in this case study, is reminiscent of policies described by Tyack and Cuban (1995) who determined, "The journey from policy talk at the national and state levels to what occurs in the schools and classrooms is long, often unpredictable, and complicated" (p. 39).

This study shows how teachers and tutors could, and often did, engage in idiosyncratic and sometimes unpredictable transformations of this policy (see Foucault, 1980). Teachers and tutors could resist the national ideological vision of the policy and transform it into one that would meet their own needs. In spite of the changes that materialized as the policy changed hands from one group to the next, there are some aspects of the implementation of the program at this site that were predictable: (1) There was very little, if any questioning of the political aspects of the policy; (2) literacy practices remained largely unchanged; and (3) functionalist analyses were employed. Each of these points will be addressed in detail in the following section of this chapter.

The Apolitical Attitude Toward America Reads

It is predictable that no one during the first year of the program questioned the political, social, or historical aspects of America Reads. There were numerous opportunities, both formally and informally, in which any of the stakeholders in this study at Penn State could have posed these questions. I even asked some tutors why they thought President Clinton initiated the program. They offered answers that ranged from "I think it's a sunshine thing, you know, spread a little sunshine around" to "Isn't there supposed to be a literacy crisis or something?" I did not ask the teachers, however, largely because the structure of my encounters with them was intended to be ethnographic in nature (see Appendix A). In other words, my goal was to listen to them talk about the program, not to shape their answers with specific questions. In retrospect, I know this is a shortcoming of the study.

Although my interviews were purposeful, with a focus on listening, I wish I had pushed for more explicit statements from the educators regarding their views of the broader political contexts and implications of the America Reads program.

That teachers did not question the political aspects of the program is no surprise. Teachers have been noted for seeing themselves as largely apolitical in their capacity as educators. Shannon (1992) wrote of this phenomenon,

> Few practicing teachers recognize the political facts about school life and school literacy. Rather, they consider themselves apolitical in their work—lamenting the politics they do recognize in "the system," defining their role as delivering already determined content in traditional ways, and abdicating their rightful place in the decision making that influences their students' and their lives in and out of school. However, teachers' denial does not mean that they stand apart from the politics of literacy education. Their inattention and lack of action perpetuates the status quo: policy makers and educators with vested interest in current practices and programs accept their silence as tacit endorsement of current practice and use it to argue against change. That is, teachers' political naiveté concerning literacy, teaching, and schooling actually contributes to their students' and their own predicament.... All teachers are political whether they are conscious of it or not. Their acts contribute to or challenge the status quo in literacy education, in schools, and in society. (p. 2)

The fact that teachers did not question the politics at work in this policy, and instead bought into the program, perpetuated a vision for schools that was, largely by default, neoliberal in nature. Even though teachers shaped the program with different values, their subscription to it can be perceived as an alliance with neoliberal visions for schools. Any policy or literacy program is embedded in a political context, and each has particular "strings attached."

Some teachers may not find this problematic. Some educators may already subscribe to neoliberal values for schools (see Resnick, Nolan, & Resnick, 1995, as one example). But for many teachers, the "strings" that connect America Reads to a narrow, neoliberal view of literacy may be problematic because they limit teachers', teacher educators', and students' views of literacy. There may be concern about the narrowing of curriculum to meet the needs of an ever-changing

workforce, as well as concerns about the manner in which neoliberal policies contribute to the dismantling of state supports in education (Giroux, 1999). For those teachers who see the purpose of their work, and consequently the role of the federal government, to be different, a policy such as America Reads, analyzed from a critical stance, may be largely objectionable.

Literacy Instruction Remained Largely Unchanged

A second predictable aspect of America Reads legislation is that the practices of teaching reading and literacy remained largely unchanged as a result of the program. When I met with Carol Rasco in December of the first year of the initiative, she passionately spoke of the whole language versus phonics debate. She told me,

> I want to set the record straight in the beginning—we are not going to answer that debate because in my mind there is no valid debate. Anybody that tries to tell me that teaching a child to read is only one or the other in my mind does not know children, does not know reading, and is damaging the child to think that only one of those is going to teach a child to read. I really worry about anybody that talks to me about programs without talking to me about the need to look at the individual child, where that child is right now, and what that child needs right now. (personal communication, December 2, 1997)

Meanwhile, Rasco and her staff were launching a program that was embedded with normative expectations for *all* U.S. children, not individual children. What Rasco and many other educators in the country need to realize is that the real question should not be about *method* (Luke, 1998). Instead, it should be about visions for literacy and literacy within a democracy.

The efforts of Rasco and others in policy making positions are directed toward normalization through the influence and vision of the government that was offered in training sessions, materials, and videos. Interestingly enough, there did not *need* to be a concerted effort to change the practices of teachers. The teachers and the federal government had for the most part the same ideas about the methods of teaching reading. The Petersburg schools' reading specialists' adop-

tion of a Reading Recovery model resulted in tutoring sessions that were not very different from the suggestions found in Venezky's *Read*Write*Now! Tutoring Manual*. Nor were these ideas very different from the methods used by Ms. Lund that subscribed to a reading readiness model of literacy instruction. Even Julie and Sarah, the two tutors at the Bear Creek Elementary School who listened to children read, had elements in their work that resembled both that of the classroom teachers and the normative notions of the America Reads program. Although the methods are largely similar, it remains to be seen whether the vision for reading education and the purposes of schools are so closely aligned. In other words, it seems less likely that many educators will ultimately subscribe to the neoliberal vision for reading education and schools that narrows curriculum to serving the economy and protecting capital (see Sehr, 1997).

Functionalist Analyses of America Reads

Functionalist analyses were evident at all levels of the data in this study. The federal government expected that the program would produce measurable results in the reading abilities of children, and there were plans with the initial conceptualization of the program to fund testing to provide evidence of this improvement. The government also expected that the program would fit within the structure of schools as they currently exist. In other words, there were no plans to radically change the literacy education that already existed in schools. Instead, the tutors would unobtrusively enter classrooms and teach children to read. An examination of the various materials that were provided for the program may indicate a tendency toward skills-based instruction in reading (Edmondson, 1998); and as yet, there are no new proposals for different types of literacy instruction.

The Penn State administration, which voiced an interest in measuring the effects of the program, also subscribed to a largely functionalist analysis of America Reads. They realized that it would fit within the structure of the university and could be housed in the Institute for the Study of Adult Literacy without much difficulty. There were staff members available to oversee the operations of the program, and a workforce of tutors eager to take on the responsibilities. In addition to these administrative aspects, the program coordinator used func-

tionalist analyses in the form of surveys and informal means (via the listserv) to determine tutor progress and if the program was successful.

At the school level, functionalist analyses made the program appealing to the teachers who enlisted tutors. The teachers had largely determined that the tutors would fit well within their classrooms, otherwise they would not have volunteered to employ them. The various ways in which the teachers made use of the tutors indicates what needs the teachers perceived the tutors could meet.

America Reads did not disrupt the status quo of the United States, Penn State University, or the schools in which these tutors worked. As I listened to the numerous people who were involved with the program throughout the first year, I heard time and again what a good program this was.

These functionalist analyses do not force us to consider change in literacy education or alternative visions for public education. Instead, they perpetuate the status quo, leaving practices in literacy and the purposes for schools much the same. If indeed there is a literacy crisis, these analyses will not point to solutions. Rather, they represent a fragmentation that is increasingly common in mass education, one that attempts to keep all parts in order so these supposedly independent pieces can be easily inspected, modified, or replaced (Dressmen, 1998). However, aspects of education do not exist separately, from themselves or from society as a whole. Education does not occur in a vacuum. These analyses can only tell us a small part of the story with regard to policy. This is the primary reason that we need to invoke critical analyses of policy. We need to know more about the policies that directly affect public education.

Implications of Critical Policy Analysis

Howley (1997) reminds us that research that fails to ask the right question misses the point. Critical policy analysis provides us with one means to ask the right questions, indeed broader questions, about a policy. There are three important aspects of critical policy analysis that are evident based on this particular study. Specifically, critical policy analysis will provide insights into the values that are embedded in policies, offer a glimpse at the larger visions for schools represented in policy, and provide information on the social, political, and historic aspects of policy.

The Values Embedded in Policies

Defining the values embedded in policies provides a forum for questioning dominant ideological beliefs about education in general, and literacy instruction in particular. For example, the most common neoliberal value is that a strong market economy will solve social injustice and protect individual freedom (Schusterman, 1999). According to neoliberals, the first step toward the desired, global market economy is teaching children to read so they are able to secure a good education and life-long learning. Opening this point for discussion among educators should lead to questions about the basic premises behind this value. In other words, will a good education necessarily lead to a good job and ultimately to a strong position for the U.S. economy (Aronowitz, 1994; Noble, 1994)? Of course, many would argue that this market logic is deceitful (Aronowitz, 1994; Noble, 1994; Reich, 1997; Shannon, 1998), and many citizens, regardless of the quality of their education, will go on to face unemployment or underemployment (Rifkin, 1998). The consequences of this rationale for schooling results in an impoverishment of the purposes of education (Tyack & Cuban, 1995), particularly literacy education, rather than considering the potential for literacy within a participating society (see Shannon, 1998).

This examination of values also provides an opportunity for educators to consider the ideological hegemonic influences that become articulated in the daily work of schools. Educators, while questioning the values of schools, should seize the opportunity to consider the multiple voices that are competing within them as they make decisions about educational practices. They should consider how their own practice subscribes to values that may or may not be aligned with their own values.

A Broader Vision for Schools

Knowing whose values are influencing the schools raises the larger question of what the broader purposes for education are, particularly literacy education, in a democratic society. Sehr (1997) points to the differences in public and private visions for democracy and their subsequent impact on public education. He writes that the ideal of a private democracy, one that protects capital and emphasizes the ac-

cumulation of property, has come to dominate American thought from the earlier influences of John Locke, whose theories influenced the authors of the federalist papers. The result of this logic is that the purpose of public education becomes increasingly linked to the potential to obtain particular jobs, and ultimately to the larger goal of sustaining a strong economy. This private democratic view of schools is not unique to America Reads; in fact, Kantor and Lowe (1995) find evidence of private democratic goals for schools in the rhetoric of Johnson's "Great Society" and the subsequent war on poverty.

However, it is no secret to most Americans that a good education alone is not enough to secure a well-paying job. While the inability to read may indeed limit the potential for an individual to find a job, the ability to read does not guarantee that an individual will find employment that pays a living wage (see Rifkin, 1998). Even President Clinton admitted this fact as he reminded Americans that, although the economy has been good to some people, it has not been good to everyone (Clinton, 1999, July 7). This realization, although no surprise to many, leads us to question what alternative purposes schools might serve in a democratic society. One alternative vision is linked to what Sehr (1997) has defined as public democracy. Within this view of democracy, participation in public life is essential. An ethic of care and responsibility is central to the public good, and individuals become actively engaged in the decision making of democracy. Sehr has traced the roots of this thought to Thomas Jefferson's early ideas about the purposes of schools, which were in turn influenced by Jean Jacques Rousseau. Later progressive educators, such as John Dewey, Paulo Friere, and Antonio Gramsci, among others, had similar ideas about the purposes of schools. U.S. children will continue to struggle with reading and tests of reading (see Murphy, Shannon, Johnston, and Hansen, 1998) in spite of everyone's best efforts, and initiatives such as America Reads. However, this should not mean that children who struggle with reading should be prevented from inclusion in a participatory democracy.

There are schools that subscribe to public democratic visions for democracy, with particular emphasis on participatory practice and an ethic of care. Two such schools, located in New Jersey, are described in great detail in Sehr's *Education for Public Democracy* (1997). Sehr writes of the intrinsic interest, real-world meaning, and student own-

ership that he found in these public democratic schools, as he presents hope for those who wish to see a reinvigorated public life in the United States.

Social, Political, and Historical Aspects of Policy

Understanding the political, social, and historical aspects of policy will do much to move educators toward becoming savvy political players. Freire (1998) noted with concern that educators as a group have a limited understanding of government and politics. This puts teachers at a disadvantage when it comes to negotiating the needs of their schools. Coming to understand the context of a policy will give teachers a deeper knowledge of political aspects of education, and allow them to become empowered by it.

Closing our doors will not end federal involvement in education. Instead of assuming that federal policy will not impact our daily practice, educators must use their power (Fraatz, 1987, Tyack & Cuban, 1995) to shape policy makers' visions for what is possible in schools, rather than treating policy as a grab bag, or working to somehow deflect or co-opt it. This study alone has pointed to the fact that there is always some measure of self interest involved in a policy maker's decisions about what is good and best for society—more often than not, politicians hope to be reelected and to remain in office. As a result, educators need to pro-actively articulate to politicians what they believe the needs for public education are. This would benefit educators in two ways: through funding, and effective policies.

The federal government's current funding of public education amounts to approximately 5% of the school budgets (Spring, 1997). In most cases, this funding is directed toward special populations in early elementary grades in the form of Title I programs. As many schools, particularly those in urban and rural areas, face crises in funding (see Kozol, 1991 for descriptions of the needs for urban schools; Howley, 1997 for descriptions of the crises facing rural districts), the federal government may be one alternative for increasing budgetary allowances. As property values and populations decrease in rural communities, funds with which to increase the budgets for schools become more and more limited. Savvy educators who are politically aware of the trends and issues regarding funding could do much to influence policy makers and government officials to increase the funding for impoverished

schools with programs that reflect the values of educators, as opposed to those of federal policy makers who are far removed from schools.

Furthermore, and most importantly, educators who are able to articulate their needs to policy makers could influence the ways in which money is spent in schools. It would be interesting to know how the schools in the communities surrounding Penn State would have chosen to spend the $450,000 the federal government paid to support the America Reads tutors in this study. Would they have opted for tutors, as the federal government proposed? Or would they have instead purchased books and materials for their schools, professional development experiences for their teachers, or hired more faculty? For a district such as the one serving the Petersburg schools, whose low-income students numbered nearly 50%, money such as that given to Penn State could have been invaluable. However, until educators make politicians aware of the conditions of schools, there will continue to be the risk of having money misappropriated or poorly directed.

Tyack and Cuban (1995) have noted that instructional reform does not work well when conducted from places outside of schools; however, educators cannot wait until policy makers knock on the classroom door. Rather, educators should contact politicians, whether through letters, e-mails, telephone calls, or physical presence. It is only then that the needs of schools will be made known. Fraatz (1987) also notes these possibilities:

> Teachers need to recognize the extent to which their educational plans shape the agendas of every other participant in education—children, parents, specialists, and administrators. They also need to reflect on the meanings they create in the process of carrying out their plans and gaining others' consent to them... Once they have come to terms with the real power resources they already have, they can free themselves from the struggle for classroom control—a control which will forever elude them and which is in any case antithetical to the liberal and liberating intentions of American education. (p. 197)

The political participation of educators will do much to make communities, parents, and others aware of the implications particular values hold for schools. Educators need to decide what the best use of their power should be: to change policies created by others, or to influence policy by becoming involved in the political process.

The Shortcomings of Critical Policy Analysis

Critical policy analysis is not a panacea for what ails public education, nor is it without its shortcomings and critics. One criticism that has been wielded at critical theorists is the level of abstraction that surrounds the language of critical pedagogy (Ellsworth, 1989). This is a criticism that can be addressed rather directly. In order to make critical theory more accessible to educators, glossaries and definitions of terms can be included [such as the one found in Leistyna, Woodrum, and Sherblom's *Breaking Free* (1996)], to facilitate a better understanding of the language. The point would not be to oversimplify or "dumb down" the work of critical pedagogues, nor would it be to suggest that meanings are fixed and unalterable. Further, the point is not to "domesticate," "psychologize," or "technologize" critical theory (see McLaren, 1999). Instead, it is important to open new avenues for educators to study and come to understand the implications of critical theory in their work, and ultimately to better understand issues of social justice in today's schools.

For those who seek to find grand, totalizing theories of education, critical theory is not the answer. Instead, critical theorists come to understand a phenomenon and use theory as a type of "tool box" to explain their understanding. It requires a reflexivity between theory and practice that allows the analyst to explain the possibilities and consequences, and to propose alternatives. It also requires a measure of courage as educators are forced to consider the status quo, and disrupt it with questions of equity, consequences, social justice, and change.

Some critics also remark that critical theory furthers an idealist vision for schools (see McLaren, 1999). Although much of critical theory is aimed toward understanding ideas, in particular the values and norms of the dominant discourses of our society, it is not without its practical implications. Critical theory does not cynically question a policy or program without providing an alternate means of considering the phenomenon. Roger Simon (1992), as one example, encourages educators to "dream" about education, and to conceive of pedagogies of possibility, or pedagogies that can be achieved when one couples visions for practice with broader political visions for schools.

Although the roots of critical theory can be traced back several decades to the work of Karl Marx, Emmanuel Kant, and members of

the Frankfurt School, critical theory as applied to policy is a relatively new endeavor. Much more work needs to be done in this area to help make critical analyses more accessible and, in turn a more viable tool for the education community. In his analysis of the impact of the prominent critical work of educator Paulo Freire, McLaren (1999) urges educators to revisit, build on, and reinvent Freire's work within today's sociopolitical context. I believe this statement could be extended to include not only the work of Freire, but the work of other critical pedagogues as well.

So What Do We Do?

During the year that I was studying the America Reads initiative at Penn State, I was also acutely aware of the repercussions that the Reading Excellence Act was having within the reading education community. As a member of the National Reading Conference (NRC), I was receiving impassioned e-mail messages through NRC's listserv almost daily from Ken and Yetta Goodman, Leif Fearn, Sandra McCormick, and others who were urging their fellow members to write local congressmen, and politically challenge the limitations of the bill. Although I was not surprised by the fervent reactions to this legislation, I found myself pondering why no such similar action was being waged about the America Reads Challenge. What I came to realize is that it was the *analysis* of the policy that was leading to the discrepancy. The objections to the Reading Excellence Act were largely due to functionalist analyses that opposed the role that the bill would play in schools. The Reading Excellence Act would impose a particular method of instruction, based on particular kinds of research, that did not fit with what many in the reading community felt was best for children.

Meanwhile, the America Reads Challenge, with its vague parameters, did not overtly impose a particular method. It was unobtrusive in many ways and encouraged the perception of local control. I wondered if educators would be less enamored with the program if they knew what values were embedded in it. I wondered if they would buy into the program so readily if they knew of the larger vision for schools it perpetuated.

I do believe that as an educational community we need to employ critical policy analysis in order to gain a better understanding of

the consequences of policy on our work as reading educators. This is not to say that we need to eliminate functionalist analyses of policy, but we must recognize that functionalist analyses are not enough. As educators come to better understand the consequences of policy, we should be able to better articulate, whether to policy makers, parents, the media, or other significant groups, what our own visions for schools are within a democracy. That is, we must determine whether we educate our students to protect capital and self interest (a private democratic view), or whether we educate them to become active participatory citizens within a public vision for democracy.

As a result of the understandings gleaned by critical analyses, my hope is that educators will come to see themselves within the political framework, and subsequently become more politically involved. Becoming more political requires attending to information about the legislative processes at work in local districts and states, as well as the federal level. There are numerous ways to acquire this information, some of which are easily accessible through the Web sites of representatives, state departments of education, and even the White House.

Teachers also need to conduct inquiries into why we teach reading (Joyce, 1999). Literacy and literacy education need not be narrowed to a skills emphasis or exist solely to serve the economy. We need to move beyond method (Luke, 1998) to develop alternative visions for the purposes of literacy that can serve the diverse needs of the children in our schools. If our purpose is to help children become literate so they can participate in a democratic society, the way we teach reading must extend to encompass a social reconstructivist vision that openly addresses issues of power, privilege, and hope for change and social equity (Shannon, 1990).

Knowledge of politics and policy will change the way educators are able to use their power. Giroux (1999) has noted, "Public education has become one of the most contested public spheres in political life at the turn of the century" (p. 4). Unfortunately, it seems that teachers have not engaged in this opportunity by becoming more political themselves. It takes a measure of civic courage to become political (Heller, 1976). But through knowledge and participation, we can all do much to influence those who would change schools into something other than a centerpiece for public democracy. We must take the needed steps so that it is educators who are riding the train

and crafting the policy, not policy makers who are so far removed from our classrooms. My hope is that educators will become more knowledgeable about the workings of policy, politics and power in their work and that they will soon stand up and assert, as did young Paul at the opening of this book, "Nothing will scare me!"

APPENDIX A

Explanation of Data Collection and Analysis

The guiding question of this study is: What is the America Reads phenomenon as it plays out at one university site? Working within the framework of an intrinsic case study (Stake, 1995), I primarily sought to *understand* the implementation of America Reads at Penn State, and to convey the complexity of this particular case to other educators who might be interested in America Reads in particular, or critical policy analysis as a tool for policy study in general.

Intrinsic case studies differ from instrumental case studies, which use the case to explain other phenomenon. This means that the *case* in an intrinsic study is what is being explained, rather than subordinate issues. This type of study is limited because the results may not be generalizable to other situations; yet, through the use of "thick descriptions" (Geertz, 1973) it is hoped that those who read this study can make "naturalistic generalizations" (Stake & Trumbull, 1982, p. 4). In other words, it is hoped that the explanations in this study will be told in such a way that the reader may "live" the case, and perhaps see some commonalties with their own experience.

Thinking of this study as simply "the case" of Penn State is misleading because what happened at Penn State cannot be separated from broader historical, social, and political contexts. As the study progressed, it became necessary to reconceptualize it as a "cultural study," or as a project that needed to be radically contextualized, interdisciplinary, purposely political, and understood theoretically (Grossberg, 1995). This meant that in order to understand the Ameri-

ca Reads initiative at Penn State, the data needed to come not only from the university, but also from the federal government, paying special attention to political implications and historical trends. Economics and politics were considered to explain how and why such a program was viable at this particular place, in this particular time. Ultimately, theories of power helped account for whose values were accepted and implemented through the policy.

Data Collection

The data collection for this study, which spanned from May 1997 through June 1998, came from three general "levels": the federal government, the administration and tutors of Penn State, and the five schools in the community surrounding Penn State that made use of America Reads tutors. The schools were selected because of their "maximum variation" (Erlandson, et al., 1993), which means that the schools embodied different "forms" of the America Reads program. One school was a day-care center that was newly opened in August 1997, enrolling children from infants as young as 6 weeks to school age children as old as 10 years of age. Another site was an elementary school in a rural area that gave teachers the option of having tutors by putting fliers about America Reads in their mailboxes before school started. Four teachers opted for the tutors and ultimately employed them in their classrooms in very different ways. The third site included three rural schools located in the same district with a well-established community tutoring program already in place to help struggling readers. The learning support teacher in this district decided to use the America Reads tutors in these elementary schools by coordinating the services from Penn State with those of the community volunteer program.

Data Analysis

Over the year of this study, I listened to various educators and administrators talk about the program, from Carol Rasco, the National Director of the America Reads Challenge at the U.S. Department of Education, to members of the administration at Penn State, teachers whose classrooms I visited, and those who participated in online dis-

cussions via the *America Reads* listserv. The data from interviews I conducted was triangulated with documents from the federal government, Penn State, and the three schools, as well as observations of the various aspects of the program as it played out at these sites.

The initial coding of the data identified the goals of each of the three levels of the study. These goals were determined based on the stakeholder's statements and/or activities. After the goals were identified and categorized, the key values of each level were named. Identifying goals is central to understanding policy, because as Stone (1997) states, "policy is the rational attempt to attain objectives" (p. 37). Often goals are referred to as values, suggesting a "more complex array of considerations rather than a definitive endpoint" (Stone, 1997, p. 37).

For the purposes of this study, goals are defined as explicit statements or activities that express an ultimate aim. Values are broader categorizations that represent visions of an ideal society. For example, having all children learn to read by the end of the third grade is considered an explicit goal of the Clinton administration, while a universally literate workforce is a value that is a broader representation of this goal. Because any policy is an "authoritative allocation of values" (Ball, 1990, p. 3) and ultimately involves issues of power, a critical analysis, rather than a functionalist analysis, was employed.

There are a series of data sites evident across this study. The first level, reported in Chapters 2 and 3, is data from the federal government, including Carol Rasco, Richard Riley, and President Clinton. The second level, the focus of Chapter 4, is data from the Penn State administration (John Cahir and Rodney Reed), the Penn State coordinator for America Reads (Priscilla Carman), and the tutors. The third level of data, presented in Chapter 5, is from the schools and tutors. Ethnographic interviews were conducted with these stakeholders.

Each interview contained an explicit statement of purpose, followed by "ethnographic explanations," and "ethnographic questions." Over 300 pages of e-mail and listserv correspondences, field notes of observations, and informal discussions (notes from unscheduled talks with teachers and tutors in particular that occurred in the hallways of the schools or on the Penn State campus) were collected and analyzed. The interview transcripts and field notes, all of which were transcribed within 24 hours of collection, were initially coded using "open cod-

ing" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990) to conceptualize the data. This initial conceptualization was based on first identifying the activities and explicit goals and events of the tutors and teachers. Then these open codes were grouped according to similarities, or "clusters" (Miles & Huberman, 1994), which became the second-level coding. It was through these secondary codes that core categories were identified and used to name the values of the participants.

The data from the schools is based on 120 pages of field notes of observations, as well as interview transcripts with 12 America Reads tutors and 9 educators who were either teachers or principals/directors of schools. Overall, there were 28 hours of formal interviews in addition to observations that spanned the course of Penn State's academic year, from September 1997 to April 1998.

The schools were selected based on their "maximum variation" (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993) so that a rich picture of this case could be considered. Access to the first school, Bear Creek, was obtained through telephone conversations with the superintendent of schools and the principal, Mary Long. Before each visit, a written letter had to be submitted to Long describing the nature of the visit. Observations were conducted in each of the five classrooms with America Reads tutors, along with interviews of the tutors and teachers. The second set of schools, three of the Petersburg Schools, were accessed by securing permission to visit the schools in writing from the superintendent, followed by permission from the reading specialists. The observations of this program were conducted from January through March and were limited by the late start (they began tutoring January 27, 1998), transportation problems (only one tutor was eligible to drive, and when she was ill or unable to work, none of the tutors made it to the schools), and interruptions from Penn State's spring break and the Easter holiday celebrated by the school district. The third school, the Big Oak Day-Care, gave access after a phone conversation with the owner of the center and a personal contact with the director. The time line of interviews and observations is outlined in Appendix B.

The data spans the course of the first year of the program, providing a measure of validity through prolonged engagement (Stake, 1995). Further, the data set could be labeled as "strong," because it meets the criteria for strong data as outlined by Miles and Huberman

(1994, p. 268). Triangulation, or "support for a finding by showing that independent measures of it agree with it or, at least, do not contradict it" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 266), is also evident in this data. Documents, observations, and interviews were all corroborated to ensure that the coding and categories were well supported.

APPENDIX B

Time Line of America Reads

August 27, 1996 — President Clinton's speech in Wyandotte, Michigan en route to the Democratic National Convention in Chicago, Illinois. First mention of America Reads as the crowd listens to Justin and Elizabeth read *The Little Engine That Could.*

August 29, 1996 — Clinton formally announces a reading initiative during his acceptance speech at the Democratic National Convention in Chicago, Illinois.

December 1996 — Secretary of Education Richard Riley contacts Penn State. University President Graham Spanier agrees to the initiative.

February 27, 1997 — State of the Union Address. Clinton proposes his *Call to Action for American Education*, which includes funding for the America Reads Challenge.

May 1997 — First 40 tutors begin work at Penn State with federal work-study funding. They tutor in day-care centers, bookstores, libraries, and summer elementary school reading programs.

May 1997 (continued)	I had my first of many conversations during this month with Priscilla Carman, the program coordinator for Penn State. In addition to discussing the nature of her work with America Reads, as well as her goals and aspirations for the program, she provided me with information that allowed me to sign on to the national and Penn State America Reads listservs. I read the messages posted on these two forums on a daily basis throughout the year. During this time I also became engaged in compiling President Clinton and Secretary Riley's speeches on education in order to determine the values which were espoused in these forums.
June–August 1997	Pilot study of America Reads at Penn State conducted. This included observations and interviews of eight of the early tutors. The data was used to inform the formal study, which began in August 1997.
June 28, 1997	Fund raiser conducted for America Reads at a local bookstore.
July 7–10, 1997	America Reads tutors read aloud to children at the *Central Pennsylvania Festival of the Arts*.
July 30, 1997	Federal work-study training and technical assistance workshop for universities held by the federal government at the University of Pennsylvania. Priscilla Carman attended.

August 28, 1997 Fall orientation for any federal work-study tutor interested in America Reads. Eighty-one of those in attendance received their official placements at this meeting, and completed DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile.

September 11, 1997 Tutor training session conducted from 6:00 a.m to 10:00 p.m.

September 18, 1997 Interview with Clint, tutor at Big Oak Day-Care.

September 20, 1997 America Reads tutors conducted activities at the "Great Insect Fair" at Penn State.

October 8, 1997 Interview with Ms. Christy, teacher and director at Big Oak Day-Care. This school had an "open door policy," which meant that I was able to drop in at any time. I took advantage of this, and visited the school at least once a week throughout the year of the study.

October 13, 1997 Interview with Bridget, tutor at Bear Creek Elementary. This school proved to have limited access. A letter of intent needed to be submitted to the principal of the school at least 2 days before my visits. These letters needed to state who I was visiting and for what purpose. As a result, there were few informal engagements with the teachers.

October 27, 1997 Observation of Ms. Ronnie and Clint, kindergarten class at Big Oak Day-Care.

October 27, 1997	Interview with Angie, tutor at Big Oak Day-Care.
November 4, 1997	Observation of Ms. Christy and Angie, preschool classroom at Big Oak Day-Care.
November 12, 1997	Observation of Bridget and Mrs. King, second-grade classroom at Bear Creek Elementary.
November 18, 1997	Interview with John Cahir, administrator at Penn State.
November 19, 1997	Interview with Clint. Discussed his transfer from Penn State and subsequent need to leave the program.
November 21, 1997	Last interview with Bridget. Student teaching prevented her from tutoring during the spring semester.
November 25, 1997	Interview with Ms. Ronnie, kindergarten teacher at Big Oak Day-Care. She resigned her position shortly after the interview.
November 27, 1997	Interview with Sandra, tutor at Bear Creek Elementary.
December 2, 1997	Interview with Carol Rasco, National Director of America Reads.
December 10, 1997	Interview with Priscilla Carman. (Much of the communication I had with Priscilla Carman was ongoing through telephone conversations and e-mail correspondences.)

December 10, 1997	Observation of Sandra in Mrs. King's and Mrs. Williams's first-grade classrooms at Bear Creek Elementary.
December 10, 1997	Interview with Mary Long, principal at Bear Creek Elementary.
December 18, 1997	Training of Petersburg tutors at Penn State from 6:00 p.m to 9:00 p.m. The reading specialists who conducted this training made themselves readily available for my questions. One of the teachers and I had been in graduate classes together during our master's work, and we shared an open relationship throughout the study.
January 12, 1998	Interview with Rodney Reed, Dean of the College of Education at Penn State.
January 20, 1998	Training of Penn State and community volunteers at Petersburg Schools, 1:00 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.
February 2, 1998	Observation of Mark and Ms. Christy in school-age classroom, Big Oak Day-Care Center.
March 3, 1998	Observation of Petersburg tutors at two schools.
March 5, 1998	Phone conversation with Mary Long at Bear Creek Elementary.
March 19, 1998	Interview with Mrs. King (who no longer had an America Reads tutor, but was hoping for one during the next school year).

March 19, 1998	Observation of Julie in Ms. Shauver's third-grade classroom at Bear Creek Elementary. Separate interviews with Ms. Shauver and Julie.
March 31, 1998	Observation of Angie in Mrs. Turner's third-grade classroom at Bear Creek Elementary. Separate interviews conducted with Angie and Mrs. Turner.
April 28, 1998	Interview with Melissa Kunes at the Office of Student Aid, Penn State.

Standards for the English Language Arts

(International Reading Association & National Council of Teachers of English, 1996, p. 3)

1. Students read a wide range of print and nonprint texts to build an understanding of texts, of themselves, and of the cultures of the United States and the world; to acquire new information; to respond to the needs and demands of society and the workplace; and for personal fulfillment. Among these texts are fiction and nonfiction, classic, and contemporary works.

2. Students read a wide range of literature from many periods in many genres to build an understanding of the many dimensions (e.g. philosophical, ethical, and aesthetic) of human experience.

3. Students apply a wide range of strategies to comprehend, interpret, evaluate, and appreciate texts. They draw on their prior experience, their interactions with other readers and writers, their knowledge of word meaning and of other texts, their word-identification strategies, and their understanding of textual features (e.g. sound/letter correspondence, sentence structure, context, and graphics).

4. Students adjust their use of spoken, written, and visual language (e.g., conventions, style, and vocabulary) to communicate effectively with a wide variety of audiences and for different purposes.

5. Students employ a wide range of strategies as they write and use different writing process elements appropriately to communicate with different audiences for a variety of purposes.

6. Students apply knowledge of language structure, language conventions (e.g., spelling and punctuation), media techniques, figurative language, and genre to create, critique, and discuss print and nonprint texts.

7. Students conduct research on issues and interests by generating ideas and questions and by posing problems. They gather, evaluate, and synthesize data from a variety of sources (e.g., print and nonprint texts, artifacts, and people) to communicate their discoveries in ways that suit their purpose and audience.

8. Students use a variety of technological and informational sources (e.g., libraries, databases, computer networks, and video) to gather and synthesize information and to create and communicate knowledge.

9. Students develop an understanding of and respect for diversity in language use, patterns, and dialects across cultures, ethnic groups, geographic regions, and social roles.

10. Students whose first language is not English make use of their first language to develop competency in the English language arts and to develop understanding of content across the curriculum.

11. Students participate as knowledgeable, reflective, creative, and critical members of a variety of literacy communities.

12. Students use spoken, written, and visual language to accomplish their own purposes.

Appendix D

DeFord's Theoretical Orientation to Reading Profile

For each question, circle the one best answer that reflects the strength of your agreement or disagreement: SA means "strongly agree," while SD means "strongly disagree."

1. A child needs to be able to verbalize the rules of phonics in order to assure proficiency in processing new words.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD
2. An increase in reading errors is usually related to a decrease in comprehension.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD
3. Dividing words into syllables according to their rules is a helpful instructional practice for reading new words.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD
4. Fluency and expression are necessary components of reading that indicate good comprehension.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD
5. Materials for early reading should be written in natural language without concern for short, simple words and sentences.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD
6. When children do not know a word, they should be instructed to sound out its parts.	1 2 3 4 5	SA SD

7. It is a good practice to allow children to edit what is written into their own dialect when learning to read.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
8. The use of a glossary or dictionary is necessary in determining the meaning and pronunciation of new words.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
9. Reversals (e.g. saying "saw" for *was*) are significant problems in the teaching of reading.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
10. It is good practice to correct a child as soon as an oral reading mistake is made.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
11. It is important for a word to be repeated a number of times after it has been introduced to insure that it will become a part of sight vocabulary.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
12. Paying close attention to punctuation marks is necessary to understanding story content.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
13. It is a sign of ineffective reading when words and phrases are repeated.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
14. Being able to label words according to grammatical function (nouns, etc.) is useful in proficient reading.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
15. When coming to a word that's unknown, the reader should be encouraged to guess upon meaning and go on.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
16. Young readers need to be introduced to the root form of words (*run*, *long*) before they are asked to read inflected forms (*running*, *longest*).	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
17. It is not necessary for a child to know the letters of the alphabet in order to learn to read.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
18. Flashcard drills with sight words is an unnecessary form of practice with reading instruction.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD

	1 2 3 4 5
19. Ability to use accent patterns in multisyllable words (*pho´ to graph, pho to´ gra phy, and pho to gra´ phic*) should be developed as a part of reading instruction.	SA SD
20. Controlling text through consistent spelling patterns (*The fat cat ran back. The fat cat sat on a hat.*) is a means by which children can best learn to read.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
21. Formal instruction in reading is necessary to insure the adequate development of all the skills used in reading.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
22. Phonic analysis is the most important form of analysis used when meeting new words.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
23. Children's initial encounters with print should focus on meaning, not upon exact graphic representation.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
24. Word shapes (word configurations) should be taught in reading to aid in word recognition.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
25. It is important to teach skills in relation to other skills.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
26. If a child says "house" for the written word *home*, the response should be left uncorrected.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
27. It is not necessary to introduce new words before they appear in reading text.	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD
28. Some problems in reading are caused by readers dropping the inflectional endings from words. (e.g. *jumps, jumped*).	1 2 3 4 5 SA SD

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JACQUELINE EDMONDSON is an assistant professor of education at the University of Minnesota at Morris, Morris, Minnesota, USA.

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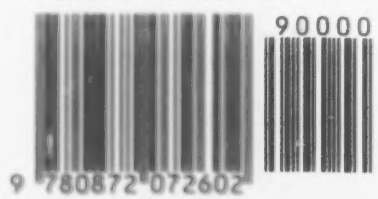
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